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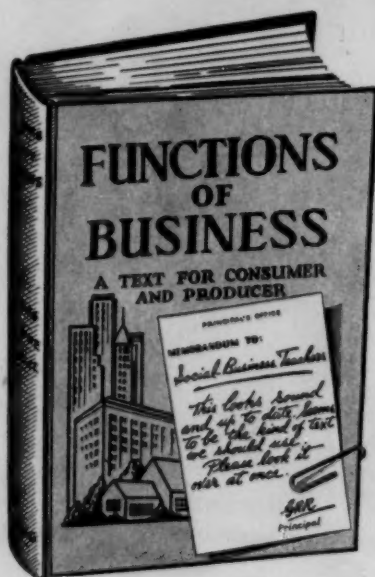
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SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

The Dynamics of Democracy

[The following statement was an armistice Day Assembly talk at the high school in Glens Falls, New York, in 1940. *Editor.*]

THE commemoration of this Armistice Day is a tragic mockery of the Armistice Day of twenty-two years ago. In later years, until 1939, the day came to mean a period of silence and reflection about the war which had, presumably, ended. But that meaning of the word has now been forgotten, like the half-time score at the end of a football game. The cry of "armistice" has been muted by the military command of "Attention."

Attention! What does it mean? Attention, says the dictionary, is a position of readiness to obey orders and in its Latin origin it means a "stretching to." A stretching to obey orders—what a challenge, not to the soldier alone, but to every defender of democracy, young and old, man and woman! For stretching in the ordinary sense is not imposed from without, it is the exercise of an urge from within. A stretching to obey orders!

Whose orders, you ask? Here again we must pause to take our bearings. "Democracy" is comprised of two Greek words, *demos*, the people, *kratein*, rule; hence, democracy, the rule of the people. But that statement of principle, like Lincoln's "government of the people, by the people, and for the people," is nothing more than a statement of principle and does not provide us with a blueprint of how the people govern in a democracy.

So it is necessary to consider the dy-

namics of democracy, that is, the forces which make it go. A dynamo needs dynamic force. So it is with democracy. And democracy has many forces upon the understanding, development, and operation of which it depends. The Constitution, the Congress, the President, the courts, the army, the navy, the tax collector, the teacher, the policeman, are only parts of the machine which can not operate without the forces which are within the people.

WHAT are these forces of democracy? The first is duty. There is in the minds of some the mistaken belief that a citizen in a democracy does not have to do anything he does not want to do—particularly if he or his representative did not vote for it. Nothing could be further from the truth. One does not drive his car on whichever side of the road suits his fancy—his own safety as well as the safety of society demands otherwise. One does not appear in public without clothes, for the custom of society as well as the law of the state prohibits. Until a person is sixteen years old, neither he nor his parents have any choice about his school attendance. A democratic society has decided that the welfare of the state demands that every individual shall be compelled to take advantage of opportunity for education. So, too, in the payment of taxes, respect for private property, abstaining from dishonest business practices, the decision of the majority establishes the duty of all. There is no escape from duty because we live in a democracy.

But majorities have duties, too. One is to protect the rights of minorities. Those who

do not agree with the majority in a democracy are assured the right to say so publicly, or to worship in a manner different from some other group. When, therefore, a clash of opinions occurs in a democracy, it takes reason, tolerance, and that which we call sportsmanship to adjust such differences.

Recently there has been some discussion about whether our first peacetime draft may be a step towards the destruction of our democracy. It is clear from my definition of duty that I do not think so. A free society can be maintained only as the free citizens render a common service in a common cause. We need to pay more, not less, devotion to duty in our democracy. This is just as true of trifles as it is of giving a year of one's life in military service. Because we have janitors to keep our school building clean does not excuse us from picking up papers or permit us to litter the grounds that the janitors may have work. The existence of democracy depends upon every individual's stretching himself to obey the demands of group welfare.

THE second force in democracy is leadership. There is a belief that a leader can not take any step or make any decision without consulting his group. By the very fact that he is a leader he must from time to time show his followers what to do when they are undecided or when there is not time for discussion and vote. It is not enough that we shall always be against something; we must be positive. Every football player knows that if his team is to win it is not enough to prevent the other team from winning—his own must have some offensive plays that will score. What powers the people have in a democracy in regard to their leadership does not depend alone upon their ability to check him at this moment or that, but whether they will follow him and approve in free, unregimented elections what he is doing. This is as true of a leader in school clubs, or a member of a

recitation class as it is of an elected public official. If a leader does not lead, wherein is he a leader? By the nature of our democracy leaders arise from within the group, not by reason of birth or inheritance, but by ability and devotion to the common service in a common cause. If leadership fails, democracy fails. Every person, therefore, has a responsibility to his group, any group, Scout troop, Hi-Y Club, religious association, or whatever, to be willing to assume whatever kind of leadership he proves himself capable of—a stretching to obey orders of group welfare.

AND now the third force of democracy, its defense. By this I do not mean simply the military defense of our territory, but rather the protection and preservation of the spirit of democracy. We hear it said on many sides that we must defend the democracy we have by assuring the right of free speech or the right to vote or the opportunity to go to school as though these were rights which were handed to us ready-made and for perpetual use. But the rights of democracy are not ready-made. We do not have free press, or free worship because the men who wrote the Bill of Rights said we should have them, but because Peter Zenger stood trial at the risk of punishment to be able to publish what he believed or because Anne Hutchinson or Roger Williams or Lord Baltimore and others withstood the persecution of their fellow men and suffered to achieve the right of free worship not for themselves alone, but for others as well. Our democracy, therefore, is not something which is fixed and final, but it is always in a process of becoming. Free speech has to be contested for by some in every age who wish to express an unpopular thought. The democracy we call ours is largely political in nature and yet, even so, many Negroes are denied the right to vote; many whites can not vote in certain states because they can not pay a poll tax. On another front we have little economic democracy. In spite of

general compulsory attendance laws there are a million children of school age not in school, largely because their parents can not afford to send them to school or because a community itself may be too poor to maintain a school. There are more people who enter school and drop out than there are who graduate. Of those who leave, one-third, it is estimated, drop out for financial reasons and not because of limitation of learning ability. The battle for freedom must be fought in every age, not always with guns, but with hands, hearts, and heads filled with ideas.

THE defense of democracy depends upon the spirit of sacrifice of individuals. It is always a great deal easier not to vote or to vote as someone tells you than to spend time and effort to study the issues and candidates and make your own decision. It is always easier to leave to someone else the concern as to whether a law is being enforced the way it should be—providing the enforcement is not a personal question at the moment. "Getting by" is always easier than making the honor list. The good is always the enemy of the best.

Democracy needs people who know how to do particular things. And there are so many things to be done. We need to know how to build better houses, we need to be able to plan our communities and regions as we have never planned them in American history, we need wisdom to distribute the economic goods we are capable of producing. This will not be easy. This kind of defense of democracy will prevent the rise of dictators who appear when economic conditions are bad. This kind of defense of democracy may take hard work, sweat, patience, and discomfort, but it cries to be done. This is stretching to obey the orders of group welfare.

THESE are the dynamics of democracy: duty, leadership, defense, and sacrifice. This is the way people can be free. Free,

not from duty, but from enslavement; free, not from work, but from hunger and suffering; free, not from politics, but from dictatorship. This is the kind of freedom Washington's men stood for in bloody, bare feet in the snow at Valley Forge, the kind of freedom the pioneers sought when they crossed the plains in covered wagons a century ago. This is the kind of freedom a people want today in a world war-torn because we can not decide who will control the world's goods and power instead of how to share them. War and dictatorship will give way to peace and democracy only when all the people who really want them will stretch to obey the orders of group welfare!

HAROLD M. LONG

High School
Glens Falls, New York

Freedom of Textbooks

[The American Historical Association has long taken an active and constructive interest in the schools and the school program in history and social studies. The following statement on recent attacks on school textbooks was issued by the Council of the Association during the summer. *Editor.*]

IN VIEW of the multiplying evidences of hostility toward certain history textbooks in the schools, it is appropriate that the Executive Committee of the American Historical Association should announce its considered views on a subject of such far-reaching importance. The American Historical Association consists of nearly thirty-five hundred teachers, investigators and writers of history in all parts of the country. Since its founding in 1884, it has striven ceaselessly to improve methods of research and instruction and to add to the people's knowledge of their past. Among its presidents have been two Presidents of the United States. Its membership embraces many veterans of the Spanish-American War and the First World War. In every section of the Union, members of the Association have attested their devotion to the commonweal, not only by conscientiously

discharging their professional duties but also by participating in a wide variety of civic activities. It is not reasonable to suppose that men and women of this type would write and use textbooks calculated to undermine the loyalty of their students.

GENUINE patriotism, no less than honesty and sound scholarship, requires that textbook authors and teachers should endeavor to present a truthful picture of the past. Those who oppose this view would seem to believe that the history of the United States contains things so disgraceful that it is unsafe for the young to hear of them. This we emphatically deny. If the men who built the nation had their share of human frailties, the story as a whole is one of continuing inspiration to the people of this and other lands.

To omit controversial questions from the historical account, as is sometimes urged, would be to garble and distort the record. The history of the American people has been hammered out on the anvil of experience. It is a story of achievement, often against heavy odds. Some of the most glorious passages have consisted in the struggle to overcome social and economic injustices. Failures as well as successes carry lessons of which posterity can ill afford to be ignorant. In discussing controversial issues the textbook writer has an obligation to give both sides. By so doing he not only upholds the ideal of presenting a truthful picture but also of encouraging in young people that spirit of inquiry, openmindedness and fair play which lies at the root of our democratic institutions.

History teaching must, of course, be graded according to the successive levels of

instruction; but in this respect it does not differ from other studies, such as English and mathematics. The essential consideration in history teaching as in other courses is the degree of complexity of the subject matter. This complexity should be adjusted to meet the capacities of young students by simplification, not by perversion.

JUDGMENT as to the merits of a textbook is the function of those most competent to form a judgment: the teachers concerned and professional scholars. A reasoned appraisal requires an up-to-date knowledge of the subject, a judicial frame of mind, familiarity with school curricula, and practical experience in teaching students of the age for which the book is intended. This function can not safely be left to propagandist organizations, or to self-appointed groups of citizens who judge on partial evidence or are unsympathetic with the continuing and permanent role of education in a democracy. Such minority groups seek, by ballyhoo or blackmail, to substitute their own opinion for that of those best qualified to act in the public interest. Even though these critics cloak themselves in the mantle of "patriotism," they are guilty of practices which the totalitarian governments have cared to ruthless efficiency. Sheer dishonesty enters in when criticism is based upon phrases and sentences wrenched from their context. Such irresponsible efforts to control the school curriculum can in the end lead only to a ruinous deterioration of both textbooks and teaching and to producing young citizens with a warped knowledge of the experience of their forebears in dealing with problems often akin to those of the present.

The Development of Social Security in the United States

Wilbur J. Cohen

THE search for security is not a new aspiration for the individual nor a new responsibility for government. Socrates said that one of the great responsibilities of the Guardians of the State is to prevent excessive wealth and to prevent excessive poverty. The Declaration of Independence proclaims as self-evident the right of the people "to provide new Guards for their future security."

While objectives have not changed, new ways and means have been applied to the timeless quest for security. In earlier days the responsibility of the son for the care of parents was the most important method of security for the aged. But as the relentless forces of industrialism swept forward, it became inevitable that the responsibility of the individual would need to be supplemented by the affirmative responsibility of the whole community. The early American social services were, on the whole, limited in scope, local in character, and usually

negative in spirit. But times change, and when viewed in perspective we see an evolution from a local, voluntary, privately provided set of services to a fabric of services that is for the most part publicly supported and administered. Once education, for example, was looked upon as an exclusively private responsibility of the individual.¹ Today, education—one of our greatest social services—is looked upon as a community responsibility. Likewise, finding a job was once the exclusive responsibility of the individual. Today, a nation-wide network of public employment offices is accepted as part of the general community social services.

The main body of British and American social-security services first sprang from two main sources: the poor law and public education. The care of needy individuals and universal public education were the earliest application of the fundamental principle of community responsibility for social services which can not be provided adequately on an individualistic basis. This principle has merely been applied in more extensive and diversified ways as time has progressed and as new social problems have been recognized by the community.

ONE of the most important innovations in the development of our services was Bismarck's advocacy of compulsory social insurance in the 1880's. Next came the

In recent years the United States has adopted a "social security" program paralleling in some degree the earlier social-insurance legislation of Germany, England, and other countries. This analysis of the Social Security Act of 1935, of amendments to it, and of further proposals is contributed by the technical adviser to the Social Security Board. This article is one of a series planned in cooperation with the Social Studies Committee of the American Political Association.

¹ John Randolph of Virginia once said concerning public education: "A more pernicious notion cannot prevail . . . the government has undertaken to educate our children for us. It has given us a premium for idleness."

dramatic appeal of the Webbs in Great Britain with their slogan "The Break-Up of the Poor Law" in the Minority Report of the British Royal Commission on the Poor Laws in 1909. Social insurance and related services in Germany and Great Britain became one of the truly significant *social inventions* of the era and eventually became important to all countries of evolving industrial status.

In the United States public responsibility for new social-security services developed somewhat later than in Europe. At first compulsory workmen's compensation legislation was opposed,² as was the extension of free public employment offices as an unnecessary interference with the freedom of the employer and the employee. Old-age pensions were opposed on the grounds that they would discourage thrift and promote indolence. Unemployment insurance was said to encourage unemployment.

But the catastrophic world-wide depression of 1929 gave us new insights into an old problem. By 1937 Mr. Justice Cardozo, with general public acceptance, could say in his memorable decision upholding the constitutionality of the federal old-age insurance plan in the Social Security Act: "Needs that were narrow or parochial a century ago may be interwoven in our way with the well-being of our nation. What is critical or urgent changes with the times. The purge of nation-wide calamity that began in 1929 has taught us many lessons. Not the least is the solidarity of interests that may once have seemed to be divided."

THE SOCIAL SECURITY ACT

THE Social Security Act of 1935 was the immediate outgrowth of President Roosevelt's message to Congress on June 8,

1934, in which he painted in broad, bold strokes a picture of existing needs and forthcoming developments, saying: "... we are compelled to employ the active interest of the Nation as a whole through government in order to encourage a greater security for each individual who composes it."

The President created a Committee on Economic Security to study the entire problem of social and economic security and make recommendations to him. This Committee made its report early in 1935 and its basic recommendations were embodied in the Social Security Act of 1935. The Congressional Committee sponsoring the legislation said in retrospect: "The enactment of the Social Security Act marked a new era, the federal government accepting, for the first time, responsibility for providing a systematic program of protection against economic and social hazards. Though admittedly not perfect or all-inclusive, the Social Security Act did embrace the broadest program for social security ever launched at one time by any government."

The Act provided federal grants to the states for three forms of public assistance: to the needy aged, blind, and dependent children. Second, it enabled states to enact unemployment compensation laws and expand their employment services. Third, it set up a federal system of old-age insurance for persons working in industry and commerce. Fourth, it provided additional federal funds for the extension of state health and rehabilitation facilities under the supervision of the United States Public Health Service and the Federal Vocational Rehabilitation Service and for the development of state maternal and child-welfare programs, under the supervision of the Federal Children's Bureau.

Thus, it may be said that the Social Security Act aimed to attack the problem of insecurity on two fronts at the same time: first, by providing safeguards designed to reduce dependency through the operation of social-insurance protection with respect to old age and unemployment and the ex-

² "Compensation laws are based on a socialistic, economic theory, . . . takes the employer's property without legal reason, invades his and his employee's right of private contract in a matter with which the public has no concern. . . ." Argument in opposition to the Washington workmen's compensation law in *Mountain Timber Company v. State of Washington*, 243 U.S. 224, 226 (1917).

pansion of employment services and public health services; second, by encouraging more adequate relief of existing needs of persons already aged, blind, or dependent in childhood.

It was recognized that the Act was a long step forward in the right direction—"a corner stone in a structure which is being built but is by no means complete." The legislation became a key issue in the 1936 Presidential campaign with the result that there was more general agreement that what the country wanted was more governmental responsibility for social security rather than less.

AFTER the adoption of the law various problems began to become a matter of public concern. The best known issue became the financing of the old-age insurance plan with which the benefit structure was inextricably interwoven. As a result, Congress amended the law in 1939, upon the recommendation of the Social Security Board and the Advisory Council on Social Security, expanding the federal old-age insurance system to include current survivorship benefits, changing the character of the benefits from an individual basis to a family basis, liberalizing benefits in the early years, and providing for beginning payment of benefits in 1940 instead of 1942.

In addition, coverage was extended under the federal old-age and survivors' insurance system to seamen, bank employees, and employed persons sixty-five or over. Bank employees were also brought under unemployment insurance. Unfortunately, on the other hand, the exclusion of "agricultural labor" was so broadened so as to exclude an additional 600,000 individuals from the protection of the insurance system.

Various other amendments were enacted providing more adequate federal aid to the states under the various assistance, health, and welfare programs. Most important of these was the amendment providing substantially larger federal aid to the states for aid to dependent children.

Since January, 1940, the federal old-age and survivors' insurance system has been paying current monthly insurance benefits to retired aged workers, their wives and young children; and monthly survivors' benefits to aged widows, and to widows with young children, or to aged dependent parents of deceased workers. This insurance system is expected to expand gradually so that within the next fifteen years about 8,000,000 aged persons will either be drawing insurance benefits or be eligible to draw such benefits if they choose to retire. Moreover, about 2,000,000 widows and young children will be in receipt of survivorship benefits by that time. At the end of 1940 over 45,000,000 persons had wage credits on their social-security accounts because of work in insured employment since 1936.

The federal-state old-age assistance program already provides monthly cash payments to over 2,175,000 aged persons. Over 900,000 dependent children are in receipt of similar aid in addition to 50,000 needy blind persons.

The unemployment insurance program is in operation in every state and during 1940 over 5,000,000 unemployed persons received one or more unemployment-insurance payments. In addition, the employment service, consisting of 1,500 full-time offices and 3,000 part-time offices, made approximately 5,000,000 placements of persons in jobs. Over \$500,000,000 was paid out in benefits to unemployed workers. Some idea of the probable scope of the program can be obtained when it is realized that the existing unemployment-insurance system would provide a cushion of purchasing power of about \$1,000,000,000 in a business recession similar to that of 1938.

NEXT STEPS IN SOCIAL SECURITY

INCREASING attention is now being given to further amendment of the Social Security Act. Among the more immediate proposals which appear to have practical significance are the following:

1. Extension of coverage under the fed-

eral old-age and survivors' insurance system to as many as possible of the groups now excluded such as the self-employed, agricultural labor, domestic service, non-profit institutions, and public employees. Some 20,000,000 individuals are in occupations not covered by the federal insurance plan. It is administratively practicable and socially desirable to extend protection to these individuals. There is now very general agreement that employees of religious, charitable, educational and similar non-profit institutions should be included. Recent studies indicate that about one-half of all public employees, federal, state, and local, are not protected by any retirement system. Many small employers who pay insurance contributions for their employees have come to realize the advantages of having old-age and survivorship insurance protection. Agricultural labor and domestic service could easily be included by utilizing a stamp-book system which has been used in several foreign countries.

2. Expansion of the federal old-age and survivor's insurance system to include payment of cash benefits to the permanently disabled person and his family. It is significant that, with the single exception of Spain, every other country in the world which has an old-age insurance program also has provision for insurance payments for chronic disability. The proposal for cash disability benefits has been endorsed by the American Medical Association, the two national labor organizations, the Social Security Board, and many other organizations. The importance of the proposal is clearly evident by the fact that about one-fourth of the needy children now being granted aid by the states under aid to dependent children's programs are the children of disabled fathers.

3. Revision of the existing unemployment-insurance system to provide more adequate benefits to the unemployed, to simplify administration, and provide a sounder, safer system to cope with the wide disparities in employment and unemployment

which now exist among the various states and which will be greatly accentuated by the defense program. At the end of June, 1941, four states still were spending more in unemployment-insurance benefits than they were collecting in unemployment-insurance contributions. On the other hand, there were thirty-four states in which benefits were less than one-half of current collections. At the same time, benefits are unnecessarily small in amount and of short duration and should be made more adequate, particularly in view of the probable heavy load of post-defense unemployment.

4. Provision for special additional federal aid to states with low per capita incomes in order to pay more adequate old-age assistance, aid to the blind, and aid to dependent children. At the present time California receives as much in federal funds for old-age assistance as twenty other states combined which have nearly three and one-half times as many aged persons as has California. In California the average monthly payment to an aged person is about \$38; in Arkansas it is only about \$8. This disproportionate distribution of federal funds can be remedied by making the federal grants-in-aid available to the state in relation to its per capita income instead of the present equal matching arrangement. This would raise standards of assistance in the poorer states where the need is greatest.

5. Provision for federal funds to states for more adequate programs of general public assistance to unemployed and unemployable persons. Thousands of needy persons are now without any public help because of the inadequacy of existing programs. Many of these persons are sick, disabled, unemployed, or are currently earning wages which are insufficient in relation to their family responsibility. The states and localities are attempting to meet this need but only in a small way because of the lack of available funds. Federal grants-in-aid to the states for general relief, similar to grants for the needy aged, blind, and dependent children, would encourage the states to more

adequately and more humanely meet a pressing social need.

6. Provision for more adequate health and welfare programs throughout the nation. In 1939 a subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor unanimously approved the general purposes and objectives of the National Health Bill sponsored by Senator Wagner. The bill provided for the extension of maternal, infant, child-health, and welfare services, and general public-health services, the construction of needed hospitals and related facilities, general medical care, and compensation for loss of wages during sickness. In the field of health security lies the next step in the progressive evolution of our constructive social services. Because of the tremendous unemployment problem of the last decade the fact has been forgotten that sickness and disability is the most important single cause of dependency with the exception of depression unemployment.

OTHER proposals are currently being advocated by various groups. The Townsend Old-Age Revolving Pension Plan is still before Congress for consideration. A modified plan embodied in the General Welfare Bill provides for the payment of flat pensions of \$30 per month to all persons over the age of sixty but with the frank admission that the Townsend Plan's "magic formula for creating 'prosperity' or 'recovery' . . . would be merely a transfer of purchasing power and . . . is therefore a hoax." While the pressure for a flat pension to all aged persons, irrespective of their need, has been advocated by the majority report of a Special Senate Committee,³ the tremendous costs of such a plan appears to diminish its possibility for immediate enactment, particularly because of the tremendous financial cost of the defense program. Thirty dollars per month to

10,000,000 aged persons initially would cost \$3,600,000,000 per year. Nevertheless, a universal flat pension is suggested in several quarters as highly desirable to mitigate the deflationary effects of the inevitable post-defense depression. Any such expenditure seems sure to reduce the available funds for other public social services to other persons in the community.

Most significant of the possible immediate developments appears to be the growing support for special federal aid for old-age assistance to the states with low per capita incomes. If this proposal is finally adopted it no doubt will affect the entire sphere of federal-state relations. The same formula could be applied to all the social services so that the superior resources of the federal government could be used to raise the standards of all the services in the poorer areas. Special attention should be paid to encouraging more adequate aid for dependent children, for health services and education, and for aid to the unemployed which have been held at existing levels, for the most part, because of the inadequate economic capacity of some of the states and localities.

Historically, the inevitable consequences of wars have been to quicken the tempo of changes in our political, economic, and social institutions. There is ample evidence, as some political scientists have maintained, that the present conflict is in reality a manifestation of world revolution; a revolution which, whoever wins, and whoever loses, will bring significant changes, the effect of which will be more rapid and more pervasive than even the Industrial Revolution. Indications are that the need for a basic and comprehensive system of social security is recognized by the belligerents as a fundamental part of the new world order.

In connection with proposals for a drastic overhaul of the social-security services in Great Britain there is discussion of a guaranteed "National Minimum—A standard below which no one should be allowed to fall, in employment or out, in sickness or in

³ Preliminary Report of the Special Committee to Investigate the Old-Age Pension System, pursuant to Senate Resolution No. 129, 77th Congress, first session, Senate Report No. 666.

health, during widowhood or old age." The editor of the conservative London *Economist* supports the proposal by stating that "the Bill of Political Rights should be supplemented by a Bill of Economic Rights" and that such a minimum would absorb about half of the national income in Great Britain and the United States and "should be guaranteed to every citizen as of right."

In Germany, Robert Ley, the Leader of National Organization, and Minister of Labor Seldte have recently indicated that they believe the existing social-security services must be revised so that they will be firmly based upon the principle of national solidarity. Under their plan the right to assistance would not be based upon either insurance or upon need but in relation to the previous standard of living of the individual and would be sufficient for all necessities.

So whatever the political philosophy, the need for social-security services more comprehensive than now extant is definitely recognized. Fascism, communism, nazism, and democracy all have maintained and expanded their social-security programs.

Moreover, it has become increasingly clear that an expanded social-security program is as necessary to defense as is the production of guns and ships. In Great Britain the social services have been expanded and greatly liberalized during the period of the war. This development is especially important in a democracy where voluntary action is an essential element and where the fear of insecurity must be eliminated if morale and the continued contribution of the individual to the community is to be maintained and further progress made toward the "good life."

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Democracy in Problems of Democracy

Richard J. Williams

SEVERAL years ago, I came to the conclusion that I was teaching dictatorship rather than democracy in my classes in American government in the senior year of high school. Not that I intentionally advocated dictatorship by word of mouth; for I was a most eloquent advocate of democracy. But what I said or what my students read in their books did not "take," and so was of little consequence. What was "taking" day after day was the experience of living in my little dictatorship whose authority was maintained by eleven years' previous training in dictatorship: marks, rewards, punishments, the principal's office, and all the other sanctions by which teachers maintain control.

Two simple ideas of Progressive Education had long attracted me as bases for a sound system of education. One was that people learn best when they are working toward a goal which they want strongly to reach, and the other was that the most effective learning occurs when those goals arise directly from life situations. There is nothing new in these ideas; long the bases of all progressive education, they have been firmly grounded in human culture as evi-

Students should learn the ways of democracy. Logically that involves the practice of democracy, but can practice be provided in our classrooms? A teacher in Central High School, Scranton, Pennsylvania, describes what happened when he tried to find the answer.

denced by the adages, "Experience is the best teacher," and "You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink."

Accepting, as the first aim of the course, training in democracy, the students were permitted to set up democracies in our classrooms, in which they might learn how to make democracy work by actually struggling with the problems of a democracy of their own.

CLASS ORGANIZATION

THE classes were turned over to temporary chairmen elected by the students. No effort was made to give these leaders special preparation, in order to permit the need for government and organization, and the resulting problems, to arise naturally from a concrete situation.

To be brief, these groups had to go through the same steps, in a simplified but real form, as did the Founding Fathers in establishing the national government. There was first the question of who was to lead the group. How long was he to serve? Should a large number of students, or just a few, be given an opportunity to lead? Should the leader have a cabinet? What should be done if the person elected proved unsatisfactory? Second, there was the question of making laws. Should the group as a whole make the laws or should they elect representatives to make the laws for them? Should the president have the power to veto the laws? Should there be a constitutional law to stand above by-laws? If there was to be a constitution, what should go into it and how should it be changed? Third, the question of maintaining law and order

arose. Should there be courts? If so, what officials were needed and how should they be selected? By what means could a student be brought to trial? What procedures should be followed in the court? Fourth came the problem of civil liberties. What were the rights and duties of the members? Should there be some powers which the group would deny to their officers? Where should freedom of speech begin and end?

Once these fundamental problems of democratic government had been experienced in concrete form, it became simple for the counselor to indicate their similarity to the larger problems of American government in the city, state, and nation. The problems were taken up when and as the problems of the club governments gave them a natural setting. The time and place to give them a logical arrangement was toward the end of the semester when tentative solutions could be solidified into a constitution.

SELECTING PROBLEMS FOR STUDY

THE charge has often been made by traditional educators that students can not select intelligently the work that they are to cover in school. While that is probably true in some subjects, it was our experience in this field that the questions proposed for discussion covered almost identically the same areas treated in a textbook on political problems for high school students.

A few of the problems which have repeatedly been selected by students in my classes include: Should refugees from Europe be permitted to enter the United States? What is real Americanism? Is Hitler a threat to the United States? Should we have the city-manager form of government in our city? Can one receive justice in American courts? Should political parties be abolished? What's wrong with the schools? Should the United States aid England? Should a President have a third term? Should we have a Supreme Court?

In addition to the effort to make a demo-

cratic organization function, and to carry on group discussion, there was a variety of lesser activities. These provided the spice of the work, and were the types of work which the students could do most effectively. In one group, when the discussions had bogged down, some of the boys started a revolution and established a dictatorship. This experience alone gave a wealth of insight into the world scene today.

Most of the groups ran courts. The various officers of the court had to visit the county courthouse to find out how to fill their offices. The impaneling of the juries, cross-examination, and speeches of the attorneys all afforded an immense amount of fun. But in addition to fun there developed such outcomes as the understanding of judicial procedures and the ideals of justice, some straight thinking, and the ability to speak.

Political parties and campaigns constituted another common activity. The intra-class groupings coalesced into parties and so gave rise to campaign speeches, campaign literature, and all the other paraphernalia of practical American government. Likewise, it gave us an opportunity to see develop at first hand many of the abuses and strengths of parties.

OVERCOMING INITIAL DIFFICULTIES

DURING the first month or so, the performance in most of the groups was a dismal failure. While there were spots of brilliance, the work repeatedly lagged, the leaders constantly botched their jobs; one-third to one-half of the group seemed to be doing nothing whatsoever; some of the students with a little encouragement would have been willing to throw up the experiment; and the counselor constantly had to intervene to keep things going.

A colleague who tried the system gave up at this point. He failed to realize that a great deal of learning was going on under the surface. He forgot that in such vital matters as leadership, cooperation, initia-

tive, self-confidence, and responsibility, most of his students had to go back almost to the point at which they had been when they entered school. They had to unlearn the years of warping of personality, of repression, of docility and of bad habits which a backward school system had foisted upon them when they had been too young to take care of themselves. What they needed was help, encouragement, and someone to keep them at the job until a larger measure of success was theirs.

The acceptance of democracy makes it possible to concede that the authority rests with the group rather than with the counselor, that the counselor's place is necessarily in the background so that the students have an opportunity to make their own plans and express and develop their personalities.

Several devices and techniques kept the "democracies" functioning until the students were capable of a higher level of performance. Taking leaders aside and showing them where they had made mistakes was helpful, as was pointing out principles of leadership and urging them to study parliamentary procedures. The timid were asked for their opinions when one appeared to have something to say. The group and the leaders were urged to discuss what was wrong with their "democracies" and to make plans for their improvement. Explanations of the theory behind what they were trying to do were fruitful. When the discussions lagged, it was up to the counselor to give the ball a new bounce.

Sometimes a challenge, "Can't you make democracy work? A fine lot of Americans you will make." Or a threat: "You know what happened in Europe when the democracies failed to solve their problems. Dictatorship. You had better make your democracies work or the same thing will happen here." Or something encouraging: "I think you are doing splendidly with your democracy when you consider how difficult democracy is to make work. All you need is more experience with it."

Finally, the development of a group spirit was the bedrock upon which all else rested. Until it had been laid, progress was very slow. In order to work effectively together, people must be given an opportunity to become acquainted and acquire a common backlog of pleasant as well as unpleasant experiences to give them a feeling of unity. To do this in the different classrooms of a large high school was not easy, but it was achieved by running dances (country and city), sleigh-ride parties, trips to football games, and wiener roasts. One year, several groups organized six-man football teams and participated in the intramural program.

By such techniques it was possible to pass through critical days until the learnings manifested themselves in more satisfactory performance. After a month or so, the demonstrations were usually satisfactory and at times brilliant and spectacular. The discussions bristled along, flaring into red-hot arguments; the quality of the contributions was high. Many times observers have forgotten themselves and entered the debates with the students. Such comments as we have received from parents have indicated not only interest but considerable approval as well.

NEVERTHELESS, there were difficult problems which were not completely solved. About one-fifth to one-quarter of the students could not be induced to make much contribution to the group in the five months during which they were together. Although a good percentage of students make as little or less contribution in traditional classes, nonetheless, it was an undesirable situation, and we spent considerable time trying to locate the causes. Some of these students appeared to be natural followers and claimed that they profited from just listening. Others were scared lest they appear foolish before their classmates. Some had developed anti-social attitudes about school and were taking advantage of an easy setup. Whatever the cause, these

pupils needed individual diagnosis and counseling from either their teacher-counselor or the school guidance counselor.

It is significant to note, however, that many of the students who had been mal-adjusted under traditional methods found success in these clubs. The converse was also true. A number of students who had been successful in the traditional system did poorly here. This was not unexpected, inasmuch as the qualities fundamental for success in the clubs were the very qualities which, if exaggerated, would lead to trouble in the traditional classes where liberty is severely circumscribed.

Another troublesome spot was the paucity of serious reading that the students did of their own accord. While a great deal of this could be traced to unfortunate school conditioning, it is only fair to note that serious reading is hard work and most people avoid it unless the "felt need" is exceptionally strong. It was necessary to make a start in changing these attitudes. There was usually little difficulty in getting pupils to read the newspapers and popular magazines and to listen to the news commentators on the radio. Beyond that, only a handful would go under a voluntary system.

Therefore, accepting expediency, the voluntary system was modified to this extent. All members of the group were required to turn in six research reports based on fifty to one hundred pages (it frequently ran much higher in practice) of reference reading in the library in place of the traditional examinations required by the school. Further, I found it desirable for the sake of summarization to take over the class for about three weeks at the end of the semester and, using a textbook, survey in logical order the areas which we had already covered in an informal way. These two devices compelled the students to read far more than they would have under traditional procedures.

Incidentally, the research reports afforded an opportunity to give some valuable instruction on how to approach controversial

issues in a scientific spirit, how to compose reading lists, how to read intelligently, and how to report findings.

DISCIPLINE IN DEMOCRACY

IN ADDITION to these problems, the charge has sometimes been made that the "democracies" were undisciplined. Compared with traditional classes, the "democracies" were far more noisy and disordered. Most of the time, however, they were sufficiently well-ordered that they could get on with their business. On those occasions when the group organization broke down, we merely had forced upon us a fundamental problem of democracy, which took precedence over all else. Thus a lack of order, a serious fault in itself, was turned into a learning situation.

In respect to attention, the "democracies" probably fared better in comparison with traditional classes, because in them the students, and not the teacher, were responsible for the group activity. Moreover, it is very easy to confuse the expressions of attention of students in traditional classes, learned through hard experience, with the reveries which enjoy free play under expressions of rapt attention.

Another form of discipline is the purposeful, smooth movement of the group toward conscious goals. This is an important form of discipline, especially in adult group work, in order that group ends may be reached. It is important in the classroom for the achievement of direct rather than indirect learnings. The latter is the approach emphasized in the "democracies."

On the surface, the traditional classes move toward their goals, granting a competent teacher, with a great deal more direction and precision than the "democracies." This should be expected, however, because adult, trained teachers ought to be far more competent in setting goals and in devising means to achieve them than student leaders. Nevertheless, do not forget that in the traditional classes it is the teachers who are doing the moving and not the

students. What we frequently see is a competent individual demonstration of purposefulness, rather than a demonstration of social action.

Thus while the "democracies" were not exhibiting the degree of purposefulness that might have been desired, they were doing something that no traditional class could do, namely, they were teaching it. Any lack of this quality observed should not be regarded as a condemnation of the method but of the failure to develop group action before this time.

DISCIPLINE can also be defined as obedience—a willingness to take orders from the person in charge, unquestioned, blind, docile followership. While a certain amount of this type of discipline is undoubtedly necessary in our society, this was not the type of discipline the "democracies" were capable of developing in any large measure. Lacking a teacher-dictator who could command obedience, depending upon leaders selected by the groups, the emphasis was not upon obedience but upon cooperation—the acceptance of the wishes of the majority, self-control, and self-discipline. Yet even here, a certain amount of conformity was exacted by group pressures, which tended to prevent individuals from wandering too far astray.

The substance of these considerations is that, whereas the "democracies" were charged with being undisciplined, actually they possessed the discipline of democracy, not that of authoritarianism, and what is the crux of the matter, they were giving an excellent training in this type of discipline. This raises the fundamental question of what type of discipline we wish to inculcate; should it be democratic or authoritarian? Or, to be more practical, how much democratic and how much authoritarian discipline should we teach? The answer

must be found in the organization that is suited to the social order. If the day has come when democracy can not cope with the demands made upon it, the clear signal should be given to traditional education. On the other hand, if we wish to try improving democracy so that it can meet its new problems, then progressive education must be given a greater place in our educational system. As an embodiment of progressive education, the techniques here described indicate, in general, the way.

ACHIEVEMENTS

BALANCED against the supposed weaknesses of the clubs, many of which actually became strengths when compared with traditional education, if we assume that the schools should train for democracy, stand the desirable outcomes. Substantial progress was made in the following: training for leadership; training for followership; the meaning of cooperation, tolerance, and human sympathies; the ability to think straight, to conduct an elementary research job, and to report the findings; the development of interests and knowledge of political problems, as well as of social and economic problems; the knowledge and ability to apply parliamentary procedures. Finally, the students learned the meaning of democracy, its spirit, and the bases of its success. These are things, I believe, that parents and the public want young people in America to learn.

It may be concluded that such procedures as have been described here belong in the school program as an enriching and valuable experience in limited areas, such as in the study of democratic government, but that they might prove futile in areas of instruction for which they are not especially suited. Good judgment is needed, rather than a blind adherence to the tenets of any educational philosophy.

What Would Your Family Map Reveal?

Homer L. Calkin

SOCIAL scientists are working with many problems that deal with the movement of people. Individuals, families, groups, people from certain sections, and from various countries form the bases, separately and collectively, for many studies. The frontier movement, growth of cities, development of agricultural regions, increase in industry, and social questions are but a few of the topics bound closely to the migration of mankind. Charts, graphs, statistical tables, and the like have been used to show the results of such study.

However, these aids do not show sufficiently the trends of background movement. For this purpose, in a day when means of visual education are stressed, "family maps" seem to answer the need, to some extent at least. Family maps may be defined as the superimposing of the migrations of the Smiths, the Fosters, the Jacksons, or any other family upon a map of the entire United States or any section.

To be noted on these maps would be the length of time spent in each place. A typical family map of a New England family through a number of generations might show a line something of this nature: Mas-

sachusetts, 1639 to 1670; Connecticut, 1670 to 1689; Vermont, 1689 to 1732; Connecticut, 1732 to 1785; Vermont, 1785 to 1801; Western Pennsylvania, 1801 to 1856; Illinois, 1856 to 1879; Nebraska, 1879 to 1905; and Colorado, 1905 to now.

These maps may be grouped into three classes—"diverging," "converging," and "single line." These terms need a bit of explanation. With a diverging family map one starts with a single individual, let us say John Richards. From his location in Ohio, lines are drawn to Kentucky, California, South Dakota, and the other states to which his children may have gone. In turn his grandchildren and each succeeding generation are charted.

On the converging family map the opposite procedure will be shown. This will illustrate how the Brown family of Massachusetts, the Smiths of West Virginia, the Carters of New York, and others have intermarried, bringing together Scotch, English, German, and other nationalities to form a fused people.

The single-line family map shows the travels of a family from father to son to grandson. One must hasten to add that these maps alone are not sufficient without much information regarding occupation, educational training, political beliefs and activity, religious background, and similar matters.

THE spread of certain cultures has been a subject of great interest. Social scientists have attempted to measure and describe the influence of one particular group upon the development of a newer culture

The possibilities of local history in the classroom have long been recognized. It often epitomizes national history in terms of places and events already familiar to pupils. Family history has similar possibilities, as Dr. Calkin, of Clearfield, Iowa, a writer of historical articles, makes obvious.

somewhere else. These maps help in reaching some conclusions in this matter. The migrations of the Puritans of Massachusetts, the Dutch of New York, the Cavalier class of Virginia, the Quakers of Pennsylvania, the Huguenots of South Carolina, as well as the various other groups, may be charted first as separate families. These single maps may then be grouped and classified. The result will answer a number of questions. Did, for instance, the Puritans go consistently to the same states? Was migration concentrated, or have the descendants of the early settlers carried the precepts of the original culture to the entire United States? Has the exodus been over a span of centuries, or only for a short time?

The converging family maps will indicate even more interesting developments about the culture we know today. The intermingling of the descendants of the early groups of settlers, who were scattered along the Atlantic seaboard, has been great. Not only have the later generations traveled to the same states and communities, but there has been a great amount of intermarriage among people whose lineages may be traced back to widely separated localities. In addition to this, two or three generations back, the influx of Scandinavian, Irish, Italian, and other European stock will be indicated on the family maps.

SOME things which at first glance may seem a bit incongruous to the general picture of culture in a locality may be explained by a study of the maps. Perhaps there are a few families present who have a very different attitude toward the Negro race than have the majority of the community. This might be accounted for by the fact that certain ancestors of these people were originally from North Carolina.

Family maps will help to explain the presence of groups all over the country who have religious practices based upon the form established in early New England and consequently very Puritanical in nature. Also, the presence of churches following

the Anglican form of worship may be found in Illinois or Iowa. Perhaps this has been brought about by families originally from Virginia who moved over the Blue Ridge Mountains into Tennessee and in turn to the newer states in the Midwest. Other religious sects may be studied in a similar manner.

Developments in political circles may be also partly traced upon the family maps. Growth of Republican communities in the South, for example, may be the result of Northerners who, because of business, resorts, or some other reasons, have moved from their original homes.

Generally speaking, the migratory movements have been thought of as going from East to West. However, upon a thorough study of family maps, it may be discovered that there have been many cross-currents, from North to South and South to North, as well as from West to East.

FOR the sociologist, family maps will aid in determining from what sections the Negroes now living in Northern cities came originally. Did all Southern states contribute equally to the northward movement of colored migrants? Or, did some sections of the South contribute more than others? Once the facts are established, the sociologist may more intelligently engage in analysis of the motives which impelled Negro migration.

The historian who is working with the development of the frontier may use these maps to aid in drawing conclusions. Let us say he is studying the frontier of the 1850's. The maps will help to show from what sections the people came to settle the new territory. He may find in this period that New York and Pennsylvania furnished most of the migrants. A decade later people from Ohio may have been moving on west, or perhaps the great influx of Scandinavians and Germans was peopling the North Central States. On the other hand, a decade earlier the New England States may have been the source of the travelers. Whether

it was people from the older settled regions of these states or from the newer regions will be indicated. Likewise, whether the people came from rural or urban sections will be shown.

The historian who is making a study of the developments of cities may use the maps in much the same manner as he who studies the frontier. Did people move from city to city, or from country to town? Or have there been significant movements of people from city to country? Also, has the bulk of the people who formed the population of the cities been natives of at least two or three generations in this country or foreign immigrants bringing the culture and traditions of a foreign country? Studies of population trends may follow these maps, too.

A state historian may use the family maps in a study of movements into and within the state. The influence of individual families may be determined by a study of their spread and importance in various sections of a state. Even the historian who is studying and writing of developments in counties and townships may find a clarification of some problems by use of these graphic aids.

For the genealogist family maps are an excellent supplement to the charts used in listing the various generations. The individual person with a map of his ancestral travels may point to something concrete and definite when telling of where his forefathers have lived and moved. Whether a family, from generation to generation, followed the frontier movement or lagged behind in the developing towns is but one of the many things shown concerning single families.

The transfer of names for towns, townships, and counties may also be cleared up by finding the origin of early settlers. In many cases they may have carried the name of their original homes with them to new locations in the same sense that they carried other possessions. In some instances it may be prefixed with "New," but in others the name will remain the same.

In studying agricultural problems, family maps may be used to see whether people remained rural or not, and whether people moved to a new territory which resembled the one from whence they came. Conclusions may be drawn also as to the possibility of determining whether people chose certain definite formations of terrain, rather than some other type, in going to a new land. Likewise, was there a carry-over of methods and practices of farming?

The matter of labor movements and labor supply may be applied to the maps. The source of labor, movement from city to city, whether native or foreign-born, and other phases may be verified.

Closely connected with this are studies facing economists and sociologists regarding the "Dust Bowl" and other regions. Did the people moving from these regions go to cities or other rural regions? Was the trend in a single direction or in many? These are but two of the questions that may arise and be answered by the information indicated on the maps. Perhaps those who want to give the statistical data to back up or refute John Steinbeck's statements in *Grapes of Wrath* regarding the movements of migrant Oklahomans may find value in these maps.

THE social studies teacher in elementary and secondary schools can make extensive use of these maps. Try it as a method of increasing interest in problems arising in classroom discussions. By having students chart the family maps of themselves and their acquaintances and applying this information to the study of general movements, greater significance and understanding may result.

Biographies, old newspapers, diaries, family histories, letters, personal inquiries, Civil War rosters, and many other sources may furnish the necessary information for drawing up family maps. Many people may not know where even their grandparents came from. Others will know the travels and migrations of several of their family lines for generations back.

Keeping Up with the Law

Harold Gluck

WITHIN the last decade, there has been a tremendously increased demand upon the abilities of those who claim the social studies as their domain. Complacency is a deadly concept and the disturbed teacher finds he must make many readjustments in terms of knowledge, techniques, methods, skills, attitudes, approaches, and research. At times the task looks overwhelming, but then again, are we not "gallant souls"?

One of the fields which teachers must know if they are to deal effectively with much of the more recently added content of social studies courses is the field of law. We are faced with an overabundance of legal matter covering such topics as corporations, social security, the National Labor Relations Act, administrative agencies, the Walsh-Healy Act, the Federal Wages and Hours Law, the Federal Trade Commission, Supreme Court decisions, the Pure Food and Drug Act, the Federal Reserve Act, zoning ordinances, health regulations, boycotts, strikes, and civil liberties.

Just what is the social studies teacher to do about this legal matter? "To study law" is but a facetious answer. Of course, from the teaching standpoint, it would be desir-

Teachers of government, contemporary problems, and American history have increasing need for familiarity with non-technical legal reference materials. These practical suggestions come from a lawyer who now teaches social studies in the William Howard Taft High School in the Bronx, New York City.

able to have teachers who are trained in science, medicine, and other branches of human studies.

It is the purpose of this article to present a workable solution to the problem of handling legal matters involved in the teaching of the social studies, and in this spirit the following suggestions are made to the teacher. The suggestions will deal with two aspects of the problem: where to get legal materials, and how to use them in the classroom.

COLLECTING LEGAL MATERIALS

WITH but little effort on your part you can build up a good-sized personal library which will be of great assistance in the preparation of your lessons.

First, write to your senator or congressman at Washington and ask for a copy of the *Congressional Directory*. In it you will find much information about administrative agencies and the courts. You will have simple presentations of such matters as the National Mediation Board, Federal Trade Commission, Social Security Board, and a host of related matters over which you have probably wasted hours in other references.

Then write to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, Washington, and ask that the *Labor Information Bulletin* be sent to you. It is issued monthly and contains legal and economic articles. From its pages I have been able to gather data to teach such subjects as conditions in migratory camps, savings bank, life insurance, credit unions, and the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Write to the Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, and ask that your name

be placed on the mailing list to receive the *Weekly List of Selected United States Government Publications*. From this list you will be able to keep up to date on the Congressional hearings, laws, and various governmental studies. You can obtain any desired information by sending money for each report, but if you write a letter to your senator or congressman, you generally will be able to get it free, within the limits of his free supply.

Send one dollar to the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Division of Intercourse and Education, 405 West 117th Street, New York, and you will have a subscription for five years to *International Conciliation*. These documents present the views of distinguished leaders of opinion of many countries on vital international problems and reproduce the texts of official treaties, diplomatic correspondence, and draft plans for international projects such as the Permanent Court of International Justice.

Notices of judgment give the essential facts of seizure and prosecution cases brought under the Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act. If you wish to receive these and use them in teaching consumer problems, write to the Food and Drug Administration, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, and ask that your name be placed on the mailing list.

ON MORE than one occasion, you may find it necessary to refer to the court system of your state. Write to your representative at the state capital and ask him to send you a copy of any book in regard to the workings of the state government. Thus, in New York State, for the asking, you can obtain from your state representative the *Red Book*, which is issued yearly and which describes the function of the State Legislature, the Court of Appeals, and the Supreme Court of the State. In addition, in the back of the book, there is a copy of the state constitution which contains the powers and functions of the state courts.

You can lighten the burden of getting cases illustrating definite units of social studies teaching by using case books which can be purchased new or second-hand, or even borrowed from a friend. These books are collections of law cases, edited and accompanied by notes and comments concerning important cases. In the teaching of American history, government, or civics, you can use to very good advantage a case book on constitutional law. These cases will make your teaching realistic and permit you to clarify many difficult points with specific case illustrations. Some topics which lend themselves especially well to case study are: the federal government and the states; inherent and implied powers of the federal government; territories and dependencies; the jurisdiction of the federal courts; American citizenship; double jeopardy; what is a tax?; due process of law; and interstate commerce.

PERIODICALS AND NEWSPAPERS

THERE are several periodicals which have legal data that can be used to good advantage by social studies teachers. In some cases, entire issues of the periodicals have been devoted to legal matters; in other cases these publications contain worth-while articles and legal information sections.

The *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science has devoted many issues to important legal problems which can be used in the teaching of the social studies. Their issues have carried such titles as Ownership and Regulation of Public Utilities, Government Expansion in the Economic Sphere, Appraising the Social Security Program, the Constitution in the Twentieth Century, and Freedom of Inquiry and Expression.

There are many issues of the *Political Science Quarterly* which contain very helpful articles in regard to legal problems that can be used in teaching. Their articles have covered such topics as fair labor standards, law and scientific method, who makes our law, and the most-favored-nation clause.

If you can spend some time reading pure legal philosophy, you can go through the pages of the *Journal of Social Philosophy* and get some excellent ideas from their pages.

Clearing House has a special section entitled "School Law Review" which discusses legal situations which may affect the teacher in regard to his position and rights. Many of the situations discussed in their various issues relate to teacher tenure and probation. This, of course, is for your own private information, and it may save you much worry if you do read some of the cases in these issues.

It was the National Industrial Recovery Act that actually forced me, in self-defense, to use the daily newspaper as a source of legal information. That particular law, with its many codes, almost became a nightmare insofar as teaching purposes were concerned. I bought several cheap large loose-leaf notebooks, pasted in my clippings, and prepared an index. Leading newspapers publish Supreme Court decisions, important Congressional bills, important state court decisions, digests of hearings, and devote editorials to criticizing laws and acts of our various administrative boards.

A LAWYER CAN HELP YOU

IF YOU number among your friends a lawyer, there is some valuable material which he can give to you, rather than eventually consign it to the wastebasket or let it gather dust and become food for bookworms. And if you are so rare as not to know a lawyer, you can usually find that the father of one of your students is a member of the bar, and will be more than pleased to assist you.

Most lawyers subscribe to a variety of legal services which systematically provide reports of cases and related legal data. For example, a lawyer who subscribes for the United States Supreme Court Reports receives at stated intervals several of these cases bound together in paper covers. At the end of the Supreme Court term, he re-

ceives the same cases bound in cloth in one or more volumes. Ask him to save the paper-covered issues and you will have a valuable reference shelf of United States Supreme Court decisions. In similar federal courts and the state court services, ask him to save the reports for you.

At the same time, if you jot down a list of topics in which you are interested—such as arbitration, anti-trust laws, the Federal Trade Commission, interstate commerce, radio censorship, stock exchange, trademarks, and treaties—and ask him to save any important matter in regard to these specific topics, he may come across an interesting article in a law review or an editorial in his local law journal which can be used by you.

CLASSROOM USES

NOW for our second phase of the problem: how to use this matter in teaching our classes. The first thing to do is to read it through thoroughly. The next step will depend upon the matter itself and the kind of class you are teaching. After reading through matter relating to a trial, I was able to prepare for my civics class a little skit which brought out every point that was important in the case, starting with the "ticket" given for speeding, the picking of the jury, the trial itself, introduction of evidence, charges to the jury, deliberation of the jury and the rendition of the verdict.

In teaching the National Labor Relations Act to my economics class, I read several important cases rendered under the act. The class read the important sections of the act. Then I presented to them briefly the facts of each case and in terms of the act, asked for their decisions. This technique makes the situation very realistic. In a similar manner, when you teach labor and related problems you can use one of the standard case books for materials and you will thus have at your command accurate data with which to teach many of the knotty points involved. Instead of teaching plain definitions of the strike, picketing, lockouts,

boycotts, the black list, union organizers, the injunction, regulatory labor legislation, arbitration, or workmen's compensation laws, use actual cases to illustrate each point.

It's not a difficult task to teach your class how to read a law case. Wait until you have an important Supreme Court decision handed down by that tribunal. Have the students bring to class copies of the newspaper which prints the complete text of the case. Place upon the blackboard the following guide points:

1. What does the plaintiff (on one side) claim?
2. What does the defendant (on the other side) claim?
3. What is the point at issue?
4. What is the law or the decision of the court?
5. What cases, method of reasoning, or data are used by the court in reaching its decision?
6. If there is a dissenting opinion, in what respects does it differ from the majority opinion?
7. What was the social, political, or economic effect of this decision? (This may have to be forecast.)
8. What criticisms can be made of the decision?

The law of the case can be underlined with red pencil, the claims on both sides with black pencils, and the point at issue in ink.

Once your students have the ability to read a case, you can use a case book in constitutional law with your brighter students in American history or a case book in industrial law with your students in economics.

In the case of other selected legal material, it may be best to post a list of the material available for optional reading or for reports for credit. This works very well with the documents in *International Conciliation* and with much of the recent social legislation.

MUCH of the material will have to be used by yourself in preparing your daily lesson plan. One of your aims is to be accurate and the statement of what the "law is" may be already outmoded in the textbook your class is using. You will thus be able to see that the class gets the most recent information as to what the law is. In teaching the delightful subject of ancient history with reference to the Babylonians, the Jewish civilization, the Greeks, and the Romans, I found that references to the laws in effect at each period of time, and the similarity or difference with present laws helped to vitalize the lessons. John Maxcy Zane's *The Story of Law*¹ is a veritable mine of information in this respect.

If you use a newspaper with your class as assigned reading, you can always put a notation on the board in regard to a legal item in the paper which the student is to cut out and file for further reference. For example, if a budget is printed or certain hearings are being held—though you don't teach that subject until some time later in the term—you will be able to use that material if it is pasted in the student's notebook.

If you have students in your class who are studying commercial law, they will be able to discuss corporation law, partnership law, infants and necessities, and other related matter.

Justice is often pictured as blindfolded. It is about time we gently informed her that we can use many of her gifts in teaching the social studies.

¹ Garden City: Garden City Publishing Co., 1927.

Twenty-five Years of Problems of Democracy

Erling M. Hunt

IT IS just twenty-five years since the influential N.E.A. Committee on the Social Studies recommended a course called Problems of American Democracy for the final year of senior high school.¹ By 1923 the course had gained a foothold;² by 1928 it was being offered in 890 high schools in 38 states;³ by 1934 it was being offered in more than 12,000 high schools in every state, to more than half a million pupils, and among social studies courses it ranked in enrolment second only to the American history offering.⁴ There is reason to believe that the problems course has continued to gain in the years since 1934.

The "modern problems" movement is, however, broader than the modern-prob-

¹ *Social Studies in Secondary Education*, Report of the Committee on the Social Studies of the N.E.A. Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education: Bulletin 28, 1916, Bureau of Education.

² Edgar Dawson, "The History Inquiry: Report of the Director," *Historical Outlook*, June, 1924, pp. 239-72, esp. pp. 254, 256.

³ See Carl A. Jessen and Lester B. Herlihy, "Registrations in Social Studies," *School Life*, May, 1937, pp. 283-84, comparing enrolments for 1928 and 1934.

⁴ *Ibid.*

Among the major developments in the social studies curriculum during the past quarter century has been the establishment and rapid growth of the twelfth-year course in Problems of Democracy. This evaluation of that course was presented at a conference on Problems of American Democracy held at the State Teachers College, Montclair, New Jersey, on July 17.

lems course, for many problems of contemporary life are touched upon in junior high school civics courses, in the study of current events in the intermediate and secondary grades, and in history courses. Several senior high school textbooks in American history, in particular, are organized in part around present-day problems and issues; such volumes provide a substantial basis for a one- or two-year study of American civilization and contemporary affairs.

Similarly in those high schools where half-year courses in government, economics, or sociology are offered in the senior year, the organization of these subjects parallels increasingly parts of the modern-problems program. The twelfth-year course in problems is only the most striking example of that reorientation and reorganization of the social studies curriculum during the twentieth century which has brought heavy emphasis on contemporary affairs in the subjects of history, civics, and economics as well as in correlated, unified, or integrated programs.

The problems course does, however, provide a fitting capstone for the social studies program, and ought to round out, both in its subject matter and its methods of study, the description and analysis of society that the public schools are expected to provide for the young citizens of our democracy.

VALUES OF THE PROBLEMS COURSE

IN 1916 the Committee on the Social Studies advanced two arguments for the problems course. First, the overcrowded curriculum could not make room for a year each of government, economics, and sociol-

ogy, and yet the study of any one of these fields was no adequate substitute for study of all three. Second, the organization and content of these social sciences—taken over from colleges—was not adapted to the purposes of secondary education. The solution to these difficulties, the committee believed, lay in “dealing with actual situations as they occur and . . . [in] drafting into service the materials of all the social sciences as occasion demands. . . .”⁵ Stress was placed by the committee on the necessity for relating topics to the present life interests of pupils, and to the usefulness of the topics to pupils in their present process of growth. It was anticipated that the problems or issues considered would naturally vary from year to year and from class to class, and it was urged that selection be made on the basis, first, of immediate interest to the class, and second, of vital importance to society.⁶ These arguments and principles of 1916 are still not universally applied, but they have, at least, become cardinal principles in the current curriculum-reorganization movement. Many schools do vary in their selection from class to class and from year to year; some “problems” are studied under such course names as journalism, current affairs, international relations, or consumer education.

An additional argument for modern problems, and one of major importance, was noted by Edgar Dawson in his report as director of the History Inquiry of 1924. “There is no doubt,” he wrote, “of the strength of the desire to train pupils to face the dangers that come with universal literacy, universal suffrage, an undeveloped press, and almost unlimited material prosperity.” He reported a desire “not necessarily for a definite course in ‘Problems of Democracy,’ but rather for the teaching of modern problems and the experience and scientific principles which may guide us in our attack on these problems.”⁷

Surely the strongest argument for the

problems course is that both its content and method are indispensable in any program of training in democratic citizenship. Yet the problems of American society are often controversial, and the policy of including controversial issues in the public-school curriculum has itself become a controversial issue. In the most recent phase of the effort of some minority groups to bar some or all controversial subjects from the schools it has been repeatedly asserted that children and adolescents are still too young to study the problems of adult society. In view of the wide publicity given the recent survey of some of our current social studies textbooks by the National Association of Manufacturers, it is a satisfaction to quote its position on this point:

“1. Textbooks ought not to be condemned for explaining political or economic philosophies not generally acceptable to Americans, provided they are not *advocated* and unfavorable aspects are treated as adequately as favorable aspects.

“2. Textbooks should present the favorable aspects of our established institutions fully and sympathetically, but should not be required to ignore unfavorable aspects or important dissents from generally accepted customs and ideas.

“3. Material that frankly presents one side of a controversial issue may properly be used in schools if its partial character is clearly indicated and understood. Controversial issues, however, should be presented with due regard for the maturity of the students.”⁸

If we are to maintain a democracy we must have an electorate that is both informed and able to arrive at some intelligent opinion on issues that are not only complicated in themselves but further befogged by the competing propagandas that they generate. The conservative National Association of Manufacturers has rendered an important service in endorsing freedom of study for American youth.

WEAKNESSES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

THE study of problems is thus accepted as an important phase of education in democracy. Yet the introduction of modern problems into the curriculum places a

⁵ *Loc. cit.*

⁶ *Ibid.*

⁷ *Op. cit.*, p. 269.

⁸ Press releases dated February 24, 1941, and April 3, 1941. The former is quoted in *Social Education*, April, 1941, p. 290f.

heavy strain upon the schools and the social studies program. As Ernest Horn has pointed out, "learning in the social studies is very difficult, even when directed to the descriptive aspects of society, about which there is little or no disagreement. . . . Social problems are hard to understand even when the solution is known, but for many of the most important questions neither the teacher nor anyone else knows the answer. The task of instruction in the social studies is therefore immeasurably greater than that in less controversial fields. . . ."⁹ Teachers have not been, and can not possibly become, adequately informed about the problems of a society as complex as ours. School systems have seldom been willing to provide problems courses even with such limited study materials as have been available, and though the supply of such materials is now increasing, most teachers and students are likely to remain seriously handicapped by lack of reliable data. Under the circumstances it is not surprising that weaknesses have appeared in modern-problems courses that have interfered with the achievement of their objectives.

First, the controversial nature of problems and issues has sometimes resulted in a selection of problems that are non-controversial, or in either an unrealistic or a purely descriptive or historical treatment of problems. This process of making problems safe for the schools may be necessary for some especially "hot" problems, or in some especially "hot" communities, but it hardly develops the disciplined citizenship needed in a time of crisis for democracy.¹⁰

Second, the entrusting of problems courses to inadequately trained teachers,

the excessive reliance on textbooks, especially in an area where texts are out of date almost before they are off the press, and the lack of reliable and usable supplementary data, have too often resulted in what was described twenty years ago as "the forensic exchange of ignorant opinion"—in a superficial treatment of issues in terms of impressions and often of prejudices that confirms the worst, rather than develops the best, methods of dealing with current issues. School administrators have responsibility for appointing competent teachers and for providing teaching schedules that enable teachers to keep abreast of new development and new materials. Administrators have responsibility too for cooperation in making needed materials and needed firsthand observation possible, and for developing in the community a sympathetic understanding of what modern-problems teachers are trying to do. Scholars also have a responsibility—one which they are discharging in the preparation of authoritative but readable brief treatments of modern problems for a series of bulletins sponsored by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies.¹¹

ON THE other hand, teachers have their responsibilities also. The increasingly detailed and critical study of society in recent years has given rise to a third weakness in some problems courses—overemphasis on evils, on what has been called the pathology of society. Taking both the good in our society and the values in our democracy pretty much for granted, our courses have sometimes focused on crime, unhappy race relationships, social and economic inequality, slums and poverty, propaganda and pressure groups, waste, the seamier side of politics, and abuses in our economic system.

Not only has this lack of balance given some foundation for the attack on the

⁹ *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*. Part XV, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. (New York: Scribners, 1937), pp. 79f., 85.

¹⁰ For lists of the "problems" treated and indication of space allocations in textbooks, see Oliver R. Floyd, "Overlapping Between the Senior High School Courses in Problems of Democracy and American History," *Historical Outlook*, October, 1932, and J. Burroughs Stokes, "The Changing Content of Modern Problems Texts," *Social Education*, May, 1940, pp. 338-41.

¹¹ See the article by P. B. Jacobson in this issue.

modern-problems approach by a group within the National Association of Manufacturers, a group within the American Legion, and some others of more obscure affiliations, but it is also a cause for some embarrassment to all of us in the present democratic crisis.

Clearly the modern-problems program has responsibilities. Some educators have found to their dismay, that inculcation of an internationalist, or pacifist, attitude toward world affairs—an attitude in keeping with the highest traditions both of Christianity and liberalism—can result in embarrassment and possibly even in danger to those high traditions. We are learning to study “public opinion” rather than the narrower and more negative “propaganda.” We are learning not to take for granted either the accomplishments of our political and economic system or the values of democracy. We may swing too far—to a nationalistic and uncritical admiration of all that has been or now is; that too would defeat the purpose of the study of problems. But we need to remember that such study carries responsibility, and that it needs to be constructive.

A fourth weakness of the modern-problems program is shared with other social studies offerings. Faced with an overwhelming number of topics that are challenging and important, we tend to stress information, and neglect method of study. Information is important, and the problems course, like other aspects of the social studies program, presents information that is essential both to effective political citizenship and to the personal adjustment of individuals to the society in which they must live. Yet one of the distinctive contributions of the problems course lies in its bringing to young citizens a recognition of the existence of problems and issues, a recognition of the complexity of these problems and issues, a recognition both of the technical nature of pertinent data and of the role of experts, and a recognition that solutions are difficult and slow.

These understandings, together with experience in dealing in democratic fashion with questions that involve the emotions, prejudices, and conflicting interests even of members of the class group obviously mean that the method of approach to and attack upon problems is of great importance. The rapid consideration of data on a large number of topics—say a new one each week—does not constitute adequate study of problems; a deliberate and detailed study of fewer topics is necessary for the understandings and experience in exchange of views and meeting of minds that constitute one of the chief distinctive values of the problems course. Moreover, some flexibility permits realization of another value—adaptation to meet new needs, as, currently, attention to democracy or to Pan-American relations.

MODERN PROBLEMS AS A TERMINAL OFFERING

THERE is a further argument for deliberate study of fewer topics. The problems course stands at the end of the twelve-year program, when students have the advantage both of long previous study and of substantially more experience and maturity than they have had in earlier grades. Sound teaching demands that their experience be capitalized in problems study, and that their study be related to their environment, to the community, and institutions that they know. Students need to formulate and express their own views, to analyze their experience and surroundings, and to check the results with those accounts of the world beyond their personal environment that are provided in their reading.

We are gaining, as teachers, in our skill in directing community study. The motion picture and radio offer important supplementary agencies for learning, both for students who read well and for those who do not. Time for using these agencies, time for discussion, time for developing a technique of meeting problems, is required for

realization of the full values of problems study.

Since the demands of method and the natural desire to cover as many significant topics as possible are clearly in conflict, some more careful planning of our social studies program, especially in junior and senior high school, is indicated. The eleventh-year American history and the twelfth-year problems course could well be planned together; the problems of the final year could be selected with more attention to what has been studied before; the method of problems study could well be adopted long before the twelfth year in the treatment of current events and of history, geography, and civics.

Careful planning is worth the effort, for most of our citizens now conclude their formal study of society in the twelfth year; if understandings and habits of thought are defective at the end of that year, defective they are likely to remain. The fact that the problems course is the terminal social study for a large part of our population is, of course, one of its significant characteristics.

THE PERSONAL PROBLEMS OF YOUTH

ONE recent development in the social studies program complicates the responsibilities of the problems course very considerably. That is the movement for greatly increased attention to the personal problems of youth—to home and family relationships; to sex relations and preparation for marriage; to vocational opportunities, choice, and preparation; to use of leisure time; to personality development.

The problems course as originally proposed and as actually presented has been concerned with the problems of society rather than of individuals, though the two can not always be sharply differentiated. Recently the personal problems of youth have been given increasing attention in the schools not only in the guidance program

but, in many communities, in the problems course as well, sometimes even replacing consideration of the problems of society.

Both sets of problems are of major importance in any program of education in citizenship. Neither can be ignored. It appears that time must be found for both. It may be possible to treat both within a single organization, under the leadership of the same teachers, though different kinds of competence and different techniques seem to be required. It is pertinent here to assert, however, that in the present status of democratic institutions we can not afford to ignore such problems of society as have come to constitute the content of the problems course, that recognition of the need for better personal adjustments can not safely be gained at the expense of other aspects of the program for developing civic competence.

In the past twenty-five years the problems course has emerged as a promising, if not as yet an altogether efficient, conclusion to our social studies program. Its content has become increasingly flexible, increasingly realistic. We are making headway in the development of study methods appropriate to objectives that have gradually become clearer. With the cooperation of publishers, of foundations, and of professional organizations like the National Council for the Social Studies and the American Association of Secondary-School Principals we are obtaining better teaching materials. As many of our social problems grow more acute, our realization of the need for and possibilities of problems study has grown keener. If the competence of teachers and the sympathetic understanding of the public can catch up with our recognition of needs, if teachers can master the materials and the techniques of problem study, we may be able to produce results that are commensurate with the opportunities of this newest of our social studies offerings.

Resource Units for Teachers

Paul B. Jacobson

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies have secured a subvention from the General Education Board to make available resource units for teachers on urgent contemporary social problems. The purpose is to make materials available to teachers more quickly than research findings are ordinarily made available to teachers through textbooks, for it is recognized that textbooks often lag twenty years behind research findings. Teachers can not themselves dig out the materials which are available in research centers. Many of them do not have access to the materials and research findings which are necessary; all of them are so busy in teaching five or six classes that they would not have the energy to prepare such materials after a full day of teach-

How can teachers of modern problems and contemporary affairs keep up with new developments and with changing scholarship? The National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies, aided by a grant from the General Education Board, are sponsoring a series of "resource units" on modern problems, as announced in this statement of one of the co-ordinators of the enterprise, who is also Principal of the University High School, University of Chicago. This statement parallels one which appeared in the October *Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

ing. It is desirable, too, that an analysis of research material be presented by recognized authorities in the field of social science and have the approval of national organizations such as the N.A.S.S.P. and the N.C.S.S. so that a teacher may refer to the authoritative source in case the material is questioned by a pressure group in the community. It seems desirable, therefore, that such national organizations as these should secure outstanding social scientists to prepare analyses for teachers.

Perhaps it is unnecessary to mention why vital materials on social problems are needed. For those who wish information, the findings of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York indicate that young people know the headline news and historical fact but that they are uninformed about the vital social, economic and governmental problems which perplex us. They are, for example, able to describe the Ordinance of 1787 but they are not informed about work of the National Resources Planning Board or the perplexing problems of unemployment.

Citizens are in favor of youth's discussing these vital problems and two-thirds of them think that the teacher should lead the discussions; but a somewhat smaller percentage feel that the teachers are not fair in the discussions of vital topics.¹

These resource units then furnish one way for a teacher to become informed and more competent to lead the discussions which it is imperative to hold in secondary school classes.

¹ See "What People Think About Youth and Education," National Education Association *Research Bulletin*, November, 1940, pp. 196-98.

WHAT IS A RESOURCE UNIT?

ON THE basis of careful study carried out under its direction, the Committee for Democratic Citizenship has defined a resource unit as including the following:

1. An analysis of the problem
2. Suggestions for additional reading
3. Teaching aims in terms of behavior
4. Pupil activities and teaching procedures
5. A guide to evaluation.

Each analysis, which will consist of from ten to fifteen thousand words, is written by an eminent social scientist. The list of topics and of analysts which follows indicate the character of the men who are cooperating in this venture. In the opinion of the Committee, the analysis is the heart of a research unit, and will be described somewhat more fully later. When the analysis has been prepared by the social scientist, there is included a brief bibliography from which additional information can be secured. This bibliography will be selective and inexpensive insofar as that is possible.

The analysis is then sent to a master teacher who prepares teaching aims in terms of behavior. For example, in dealing with migrant labor the teacher may have as an objective that pupils shall be sympathetic to and understand the problem of the migrant. Understandings and appreciations are much more important than factual knowledge, but it is not possible to be understanding or sympathetic unless one has some factual material. Evaluation then is to be carried out in terms of the teaching aims. For instance if a teacher's objective is to create understanding and sympathy for the migrant he will evaluate instruction in those terms. If after studying the problem of the migrant laborer, the pupil speaks of an "Okie" as a "dirty bum," the teacher will recognize that he has not reached the object: understanding and sympathy of the problem of the migrant. It is quite possible, of course, that one of the objectives of teaching may be information about the problem of the migrant which would be

measured in a somewhat different way from appreciations, attitudes, and understandings.

The master teacher is also to prepare pupil activities and teaching procedures. In general it is felt that there should be pupil-teacher planning of the activities and that as much use shall be made of the community as possible. Besides reading, materials are to be used such as visual aids, moving pictures, and field trips or excursions. It is thought by the Committee that pupil activities might be divided into (a) initiatory, (b) developmental, and (c) culminative.

In the problem of migrant labor, the initiatory activity might be observing a film such as *The Grapes of Wrath*. It might be that some other means such as skilful questioning or drawing on the informational background of pupils may arouse their interests so that they would attack such a problem with enthusiasm. The developmental period requires most of the time in the teaching of the unit. During this period pupils would do elementary investigation in books and magazines, collect information from many sources, take field trips to the community, and collect whatever information is necessary. During the study of the problem, an important part of the instructional procedure would consist of wide reading—for example, novels and government documents (such as the report of the Tolan Committee of the United States Congress) which deal with migrant labor.

In the culminative period the class may have floor talks, panel discussions, or written papers which synthesize the information which they have gained. It is to be expected that these activities will vary from class to class and from teacher to teacher. In fact it is quite probable that two teachers in the same school would not employ the same activities and it is very possible that one teacher would use two different methods with two or more classes. The suggestions for teaching procedures are not intended to be a pattern for teachers to follow, but rather a source from which teachers may

secure suggestions which may be adapted to use in individual classrooms.

It is planned that the resource units shall be tried out by a number of teachers during the second semester of 1941-42 and that the material will then be published and made available to all teachers who may wish to use it. It is planned that the materials shall be published very inexpensively so that they may be generally available to any or all teachers who may wish to use them.

PREVIOUS SOURCE UNITS AND HANDBOOKS

THERE have been a number of source units prepared by teachers in summer workshops and handbooks issued by organizations. Often the handbooks have furnished an analysis of the problem from a biased point of view. The source units usually have excellent teaching suggestions but are short on analyses. For instance, a recent source unit has: analysis, two pages; bibliography, four pages; aims, one page; procedures, six pages; and tests, twelve pages. This certainly does not furnish a very large amount of technical information for the teacher. The difference between a source unit and a resource unit lies principally in the analysis. Accordingly, the Committee on Democratic Citizenship intends to furnish ten to fifteen thousand words by an outstanding authority in addition to the teaching aids. The source units provide only teaching aids.

It should be emphasized that a resource unit and a teaching unit are something different. A resource unit is a storehouse from which a teacher may draw, but no teacher would plan to use all of the materials available in a resource unit. He would build teaching units which emphasize selections from the analysis and which use certain pupil activities and teaching procedures, but in no sense would he use them all. He would use those which seem most pertinent to him, relevant to his particular community or social situation. It must also be emphasized that the resource unit is not material to be placed in the hands of pu-

pils; the material is intended for teachers and is not intended for pupil use. It is quite possible that it may be necessary for the Committee to address itself to the problem of preparing material to be used by pupils to parallel teacher material, but the task at hand is first of all to procure teaching material.

TOPICS AND AUTHORS

IN THE opinion of many people the most pressing problem which faces the teachers of social studies is to teach the crucial issues and the pressing problems which face this country. Admittedly, not all the answers are in for many social problems, but there are enough answers so that adequate teaching may be done. At any rate the answers of the social scientists and experts who have given years of serious study to these problems should be better than the layman's common sense impressions. The resource units do not try to give the proper answer to any problem; they do not "preach," they present the issues on both or as many sides as there are and let the teachers and the pupils who work with these teachers draw their own conclusions, in the light of the premises which have been explicitly stated. The materials are not textbooks but resources from which the teacher may draw such material as he wishes to use. The Committee feels that it is a new venture in the preparation of social science material and it feels that this is a significant attempt to furnish to young people honest, effective material on controversial issues.

The topics on which analyses are being prepared are listed below together with the analysts who are preparing the analyses and the master teachers who will prepare the pupil activities and teaching procedures. It is most heartening to know the interest of outstanding social scientists in preparing this type of material. The Committee has had very few refusals to participate. The Committee on Democratic Citizenship, which is responsible for directing the project, consists of four representatives from the

National Council for the Social Studies and an equal number from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, as follows: I. James Quillen, Stanford University; Erling M. Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University; James A. Michener, formerly Colorado State College of Education; Howard R. Anderson, Cornell University; Gordon Mackenzie, University of Wisconsin; E. C. Cline, Morton High School, Richmond, Indiana; J. Dan Hull, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis; and P. B. Jacobson, Principal, University High School, University of Chicago.

Others who have cooperated in planning and carrying out the project are Will French, Teachers College, Columbia University, and the following members of the University of Chicago faculty: Louis Wirth, Walter Laves, Albert Lepawsky, and Cyril O. Houle.

In order to centralize much of the work in one place, Dean Wirth and Principal Jacobson are serving as coordinators for the Committee.

RESOURCE UNITS IN SOCIAL PROBLEMS

The subjects of the twenty-six resource units follow, together with the names of the analysts and the master teachers who will prepare the units. The names of the analysts are given first.

1. Democracy and Dictatorship: T. V. Smith and Glenn R. Negley; Robert Bush.
2. Free Enterprise and Collectivism: Harry Gideonse; A. W. Troelstrup.
3. War: (to be named); Charles Merrifield.
4. American Defense: Harold J. Tobin; E. S. Kalp.
5. Personal Security and Self-Development: Caroline Zachry and Edward Shils; Virginia Block.
6. Unemployment: Paul Douglas; L. E. Leamer.
7. Population: Frederick Osborn and Frank Lormer; K. L. Rehage.
8. Machines and Technology: William Ogburn; Robert Weaver.
9. Public Opinion: Harold Lasswell; Howard Cummings.
10. Capital and Labor: Roy Lee Montgomery; Samuel Steinberg.
11. Planning and Natural Resources: C. E. Merriam; Ellis F. Hartford.
12. Public Finance: Mabel Newcomer; E. A. Krug.
13. Public Education: (to be named); Eldon Jackson.
14. Incomes and Standards of Living: Faith Williams; R. L. Currie.
15. Urbanism: Louis Wirth; Ray Lussenhop.
16. Consumer Problems: John Cassels; James Mendenhall.
17. Family Relations: E. W. Burgess; Joseph C. Baumgartner.
18. Health: Michael Davis; Lavone Hanna.
19. Recreation: Jesse Steiner; Chester Babcock.
20. Crime: Thorsten Sellin; Paul Busey.
21. Race and Cultural Relations: Ruth Benedict; (to be named).
22. Public Administration: Leonard D. White; George Engberg.
23. Housing: Louis Wirth; William Van Til.
24. Politics in Action: A. N. Holcombe; James E. Downes.
25. Youth: Floyd W. Reeves and Howard M. Bell; Douglas Ward.
26. Agriculture: Christian Christensen; Royce H. Knapp.

The Town Meeting Comes to the Classroom

Ralph Adams Brown

ON OCTOBER 5, 1772, Valerius Poplicola (the name was one of many under which Sam Adams wrote) proclaimed:

Let us converse together upon this most interesting Subject, and open our minds freely to each other. Let it be the topic of conversation in every social club. Let every Town assemble. Let Associations and Combinations be everywhere set up to consult and recover our just Rights.

It was nearly six years ago, on Memorial Day, 1935, that the first Town Meeting of the Air was broadcast to radio listeners by a mere eighteen of the stations in the NBC-Blue network. Lawrence Dennis, Raymond Moley, Norman Thomas, and A. J. Muste discussed the topic "Which Way America—Fascism, Communism, Socialism, or Democracy?" The response was instantaneous and overwhelmingly favorable. Three thousand letters and telegrams came pouring in from enthusiastic listeners who wanted *more*. The National Broadcasting Company offered a contract for the next season which provided for twenty-nine weekly broadcasts, agreeing to pay all out-of-pocket expenses. This contract has never been al-

lowed to lapse and nearly one hundred stations now carry what has become the most popular non-commercial program in the history of radio.

THE ADVISORY SERVICE

THE Town Hall Advisory Service, organized in 1938, now supplies thousands of listening groups and individuals, the former being miniature Town Meetings in themselves, with information about the coming programs. Upon subscribing, each Town Hall "associate" receives a Town Meeting bulletin-board poster upon which to insert the notices of each broadcast; a copy of each special Town Hall Advisory Service publication as soon as it appears; a pamphlet entitled *Town Meeting Discussion Leader's Handbook*, an invaluable guide to those who would manage or conduct group discussions; twenty copies of *How to Discuss—a Guide for Members of Forums, Discussion Groups and Classes*; the privilege of purchasing any Town Hall publication at a 20 per cent reduction; and special advice, by correspondence, upon many problems of organization.

At least a week in advance of each broadcast, the subscriber also receives an article which describes the background and the issues involved in the next week's topic with suggested questions for both group and individual study; a bibliography of the most commonly available books, magazine articles, and pamphlets dealing with the subject; information in regard to the speakers, including their background and experience; and certain material and suggestions to aid in publicizing the group's activities.

Social studies classes are making increasing use both of "informal" procedures and of sources of information other than textbooks. This article on a leading radio program and the discussion method it employs comes from a teacher of social studies in the high school at Haddon Heights, New Jersey.

PARTICIPATION IN HIGH SCHOOLS

SEVERAL hundred high schools are subscribers to the Advisory Service. In a residential city of New Jersey, students in Problems of American Democracy classes regularly listen to the program and conduct their own Town Meeting the next day during class period; previously selected students represent the views of each of the speakers and are in turn questioned by other members of the class. In an agricultural community in up-state New York, English students gather, with their teacher, about tables in the school library to listen and then discuss the topic among themselves. In Wisconsin a high school graduating class presented a mock Town Meeting as a commencement feature. In Texas a group of high school students used *Town Meeting*, a transcript of the broadcast published each week by the Columbia University Press, as the basis for their talks before the local Rotary Club. In California the students of one high school have adapted the Town Hall idea as a means of attacking their own school problems.

As with any subject, there is no *best* way in which teachers may use the Town Meeting as a teaching aid, but there are many *good* ways. Nearly all teachers who have reported (in the surveys made by Town Hall staff members) on their methods of using the Town Meeting have placed some emphasis on preparation for listening. Some teachers read and discuss, with their pupils, the article which describes the background and issues involved in each broadcast topic. In this way they strive both to interest their students in the topic and to prepare them for more intelligent listening. Other teachers assign students to prepare reports on several of the relevant articles listed in the bibliography, these reports usually being presented to the class each Thursday, as the Town Meeting broadcasts are regularly held each Thursday night. Although few instructors would be able to find the time to do it regularly, an ideal solution would seem to be a combination of all these meth-

ods, with a discussion of the background and issues involved on Tuesday, the hearing of reports on outside reading on Wednesday, and a brief discussion of the topic on Thursday. Teachers who felt this was taking too much class time might perhaps alternate the devices, occasionally combining them for an especially vital topic.

MANY different listening practices have also been reported. A survey in 1940 indicated that about 70 per cent of the high school students who listened did so at home, while the remainder met in large groups. Many teachers, feeling that very definite advantages are to be derived from exchange of opinion during and after the broadcast, encourage their students to listen with friends, or to ask their parents to join them, and then discuss the topic at the conclusion of the broadcast. Many of Town Meeting's regular followers first listened at the request or suggestion of their school-age children.

The method by which the discussion should be conducted depends upon many factors: the time available, the age of the students, their home background, their interest in current affairs, and their ability. Even when a teacher finds the method which seems to be best suited to both the time which he finds available and to the background and abilities of his pupils, he will soon note that the interest of the class is declining unless the procedure is varied. The previously mentioned survey indicated that about three-fourths of the school groups used thirty minutes or more of class time for discussion. Another interesting fact disclosed was that students lead their own discussions in 38 per cent of the schools, while in another 19 per cent they shared leadership with the teacher.

One method of concluding the Town Meeting study, especially useful where the teacher has a limited amount of time available for such discussion, is to have the teacher call on one or two students to summarize the speeches of the night before. This serves

a double purpose; those who listened are "on their toes" because they do not know which ones will be selected to present the summaries, and the students who did not listen—there are always some who for one reason or another can not, or do not, listen—are given some knowledge of the arguments presented.

A logical extension of this method, where time permits, is to have the teacher, after the summaries, ask other students either to add to what has already been given, or to explain their own views on the subject. The wise teacher will also encourage questions in the answering of which he can clear up uncertainties on the part of his students as to what the speakers may have been referring to, or what they meant in some part of their speeches. This procedure is also flexible enough to allow for special reports, previously assigned to individual students, on the same or a related topic. Over 60 per cent of the teachers participating in the 1940 survey indicated that they frequently used this assigned report procedure.

This by no means exhausts the methods, or combination of methods, which can be used to stimulate discussion of the Town Meeting programs. Some schools have invited parents of pupils, or community leaders, to come to the classroom and lead the discussion. Other teachers have asked outside speakers to come and address the classes on the topic of the previous night's broadcast. Many other methods are available for those fortunate schools or classes which find it possible to listen together and then discuss the topic immediately after the conclusion of the broadcast.

STIMULATING ACTIVITIES

ONE of the desirable qualities of the Town Meeting program, especially for the teacher of an American Problems course, is its ability to incite a curiosity to know more, a curiosity which carries some students far beyond the discussion period. There are a variety of activities to which these students may turn. Some will take

pleasure in writing short papers or essays, setting forth and justifying their own views on the topic. Others will wish to find out more about the speakers, read various books and articles which they have written, and then discuss them, either in groups or with the entire class. Sometimes a student will "catch fire" as a result of a Town Meeting program to the extent of writing poetry. The poems by Marilyn Joselit which were printed in the November 14, 1938, issue of *Town Meeting* bear testimony to the truth of this last statement. The teacher who guides his pupils into the Town Meeting habit will find many evidences that it has power to hold student interest long after a particular discussion has ended.

Furthermore, a school which has acquired this Town Meeting habit will find many uses for the technique of presentation and discussion thus learned. Assembly programs can often be built around the Town Meeting procedure, with student leaders or persons of prominence in the community as leaders. Where a school has broadcasting facilities, it can even put its own local Town Meeting on the air. There would seem to be almost no limit to the variation in procedure and activity which the Town Meeting habit can produce. The students themselves will often take the lead in developing new uses for the program. For example, the following report came from the principal of the Union High School of Oceanside, California:

The Student Council has inaugurated a Town Meeting of the Air. Timely subjects that are associated with school life are chosen. Two speakers present opposite sides on the questions. After the subject is discussed by the speakers, the pupils in the audience ask questions or give their opinions on the subject. A secretary takes down all the main points brought out by the audience or the main speakers so they can be used in forming decisions made by the Student Council. . . . The whole program has been such a success that a school forum is held at least once a month.

FIVE VALUES

DOES Town Meeting discussion and study have advantages which will justify the expenditure of time? It is the opinion of the writer that for at least five

reasons the time spent in Town Meeting participation, and the resulting reduction of the amount of other materials covered, can be justified.

In the first place, Town Meeting participation helps students to form the habit of acquiring information, of using that information to form their own opinions, and then of participating in a discussion with others who have formed both similar and differing opinions. More and more we of America are being forced to form our own opinions, as individuals. The issues of the hour are cutting across social, economic, sectional, racial, and party lines. We frequently find ourselves in agreement with someone with whom we were differing vehemently only a short time before. It is not enough to produce educated citizens; we must also produce citizens skilled in the art of learning, of deciding, of discussing and then of deciding all over again. Of such is the essence of democracy.

A second justification is that such participation by the students furnishes an ideal carry-over between school and adult activities. Town Meeting is one of the most important institutions, from the standpoint of the continuance of the democratic way of life, that our country now has. Prominent educators have been telling us, for many years, that we must relate our teaching to the real problems of adult life. From five to ten million Americans regularly listen to the Town Meeting program. The teacher who encourages his students to listen is revealing a higher activity; a more extensive participation is furnishing his students with an adult interest.

A third advantage of Town Meeting listening lies in the fact that it furnishes the student with a greatly increased knowledge

of many of the most vital problems facing our nation and the world. George V. Denny Jr., president of Town Hall, Inc., has written, "In a world seething with conflicting principles and ideologies, divergent political and economic theories, teachers responsible for stimulating young people to think clearly and constructively on the questions of our day confront a very real problem." It was to help teachers in this process that Town Hall's Advisory Service was created.

Another benefit is found in the realization which students gain that all of the truth is never to be found on any one side. The discussions, early in 1941, of the Lend-Lease Bill furnished the writer with proof of this advantage. Students who on Thursday would admit no logical argument against its passage, came to class on Friday and asked about Norman Thomas' (or La-Follette's, in the second broadcast) arguments, admitting that while they still thought the bill should be passed, they could now "see" some arguments against it. This advantage is especially noticeable where the students plan and carry on their own discussion, with some of them being forced to adopt the unpopular side.

A fifth advantage to be derived from Town Meeting participation is the feeling it gives the students that they are having a share in thinking through their country's problems. Totalitarian youth thrill to the salute, the military formation, the uncompromising loyalty which is demanded of them. It is time we awoke to the fact that if democracy is to survive we, too, must demand of our youth uncompromising loyalty and must in turn give them the satisfaction of participating in democracy's processes. Town Meeting participation offers one such opportunity.

Use of Community Resources in Rural Schools

Inga Erickson Brown

EVEN one-room rural schools have in their environment a wealth of materials for teaching social studies. A systematic outline, adapted to the particular locality, can readily be built. It would, of course, include attention to geographical location, resources, industries, trade, transportation, communication, public utilities, financial institutions, government, protection, social welfare, labor conditions, agricultural agencies, churches, schools and educational opportunity, the arts, and recreation. Many of these topics have national, and some have international aspects.

USE OF AGRICULTURAL AGENCIES

AGRICULTURAL agencies have been selected for attention here. The agencies that operate for the farmers' welfare are of interest to every rural pupil and teacher. Today there are very few rural children who have not heard such expressions as "sealing corn cribs," "measuring land," "quotas," and "soil conservation." Though they are familiar terms, the chil-

dren are usually unable to interpret them. Undoubtedly a great number of youngsters feel the same way a twelve-year-old girl did who said in school on morning, "Daddy is always talking about measuring land and they have to control the crops and so on, and I don't know what it's all about." Such a statement could serve to introduce activities leading to an elementary understanding of the agricultural agencies that are at work helping the farmer.

If the teacher does not feel qualified to teach this particular phase of the social studies there are several agencies to which he can turn for help. Direct contact with them is of great value because part of their work is education. Literature is available from the Department of Agriculture at Washington, from the agricultural experiment stations, and from state officials and university farm schools. Radio programs often bear directly on this topic. Frequently there is someone in the school district who is an active member of the Farm Bureau or who has a part in the soil conservation program. These are usually willing, and often quite pleased, to be able to share their knowledge with the pupils and teacher. Not only will contact with the agricultural agencies aid the child to understand the terms used by their elders and to participate in family discussions, but it will also have direct vocational value to many who will spend their lives on farms.

What are some of the facts dealing with this topic that children in a rural school are able to grasp? It is the writer's opinion that the average child in grades seven and eight, and some in grade six, can comprehend:

This report of community study comes from a one-room school eight miles from Mankato, Minnesota, a city of some 18,000 inhabitants, in a rich agricultural region. "Grades" were combined for various aspects of the study; all grades participated in the study of early settlers and their hardships, but that of citizenship and urban problems was confined to older pupils.

1. That the county agent is the representative of the county, the state, and the federal governments.

2. That the county agent and the home demonstration agent are at all times willing to help the farmer and the farmer's wife with their problems, and that this service is free.

3. That such programs as those on obnoxious weed control, dairy and swine herd improvement, and cow-testing associations have for their objective that of helping the farmer.

4. That the soil conservation program was planned by the federal government to take the place of the AAA (Agricultural Adjustment Act), which the United States Supreme Court declared unconstitutional.

5. That the purpose of the soil conservation program is to limit the number of acres planted to soil-depleting crops such as grain and corn, and to increase the number of acres planted to soil-conserving crops such as alfalfa and sweet clover.

6. That under the soil conservation program the farmer is paid for cooperating with the government.

7. That the government gives the farmer a sum of money (parity payment) that tends to balance the difference between the prices he gets for goods he sells and the prices he pays for goods he buys.

8. That in farming such great risks are involved that banks want to handle only the very safest credits.

9. That to take care of the loans the banks refused to make, the government set up the Farm Security Agency, to help poor farmers and give as many as possible a new start.

10. That in order to get help from the Farm Security Agency the farmer can not be a scoundrel but must be hard-working, honest, and willing to cooperate with the officials in charge.

11. That if a farmer obtains a loan with which to buy a farm he may have forty years in which to pay for it, with interest at 3 per cent.

12. That if the farmer has obtained a smaller loan in order to buy equipment or livestock he has five years in which to pay, with interest at 5 per cent.

13. That if a person, through no fault of his own, is unable to pay the instalment when due, the Farm Security Agency is willing to make adjustments.

14. That the Production Credit Association makes short-time loans to farmers usually taking a mortgage on livestock or machinery as security.

15. That under the circumstances the government is doing what seems wisest to help the farmer attain a reasonably good standard of living and that feeling of security that all people desire.

STUDY OF COMMUNITY HISTORY

CONCRETE illustrations of social studies activities in the writer's one-room school are suggestive of what may be done.

For several weeks the pupils had been studying the growth and development of Minnesota. The children decided to make an "ancestor map" to bring out the cosmopolitan aspect of our school. A large map of Europe was traced and the countries lightly colored. Next a plan was devised whereby they could show the nationality of each child and the number of generations his family had been in the United States. The school, consisting of seventeen pupils, two student teachers, and the supervising teacher, showed that eleven countries were represented: England, Wales, Scotland, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Netherlands, France, and Czechoslovakia. Without a doubt, obtaining the data and making that map made the pupils realize very vividly the cosmopolitan population of our country when twenty people represented eleven European countries.

It seemed logical that the next questions these children wanted answered were: "Why did they leave Europe?" and "Why did so many folks choose southern Minnesota?"

The teacher asked them what they could

do to find the answers to the questions. These were some of the responses: "Read in books." "Listen to the Minnesota programs on the radio." "Listen to 'Cavalcade of America.'" "Ask our grandparents."

The last suggestion met with enthusiastic response. The following days they vied with each other telling experiences of early days. A shy little nine-year-old boy in the fourth grade had no grandparents. One evening, on his own initiative, he took his pencil and paper, walked across the fields and interviewed an eighty-five year old lady. The next day little Danny had the floor. He forgot his usual nervousness and for several minutes related some of the pioneer lady's stories to an interested audience. The children realized a wealth of information and true stories were just waiting to be told to listening ears. They suggested that old settlers be invited to school to tell about the early days. In the meantime news had traveled, not only to the people in this district, but also to the neighboring district that in Rush Lake School the children were learning about pioneer days by talking to the "old folks."

The old people, in our district and the neighboring ones, received the invitation with enthusiasm. Here was an opportunity to tell the stories they loved the most to people who really wanted to hear them. The children whose grandfathers or grandmothers came were especially proud that "Early Settler Day." For three hours the children sat spellbound and listened, occasionally interrupting to ask questions. The girls and boys found out why the people had come to this community. One grandfather related how during the long winter evenings in Prussia his father would sit for hours and tell about the great German settlement in Wisconsin. They emigrated there only to find all the good land taken, so they continued on into Minnesota. One grandmother told how her folks were factory workers in England; they heard of the free land in Minnesota and came. Compulsory military training in Europe became

vividly real when they heard how carefully the plans had been laid so one of the grandfathers could be smuggled out of Europe in order to avoid the training. Some of the old folks were members of large families in the East, in Canada, or in Wisconsin, and they had migrated here in order to obtain fertile land for a small sum of money.

No book could give a better description of pioneer hardships than those that were told that day. The scarcity of food seemed to be the predominating hardship in the memories of these folks. In the winter they depended on game to supplement their food supply. One winter there was so much snow that hunting was impossible and in one family the store of food was gone long before the winter ended. They struggled along, hungry most of the time. Finally the baby became ill for lack of food. The mother waded through the deep snow to the nearest neighbor and pleaded with them to give her a very small portion of wheat for the baby. She took it home, ground it in the coffee mill, made porridge, and fed the baby. Later the snow melted and the water was high everywhere. The family was entirely without food. The father set out on foot to obtain some, often wading in water up to his waist. The father offered five dollars to anyone who would give him as much flour as he could carry home on his shoulder. He walked almost thirty miles before he found anyone willing to let him have the flour.

Stories of the Sioux Massacre and Indian scares were told. One old lady had witnessed, at the age of thirteen, the hanging of the Sioux Indians. In the homes of two of the settlers Indians had been fed regularly.

One of the visitors came from Wisconsin in a caravan of thirteen covered wagons in the year 1854. While they ferried across the Mississippi her father's gun accidentally was dropped in the river. He and some friends spent four days searching for the gun before they found it.

Roads became significant when a grand-

father narrated how he had been compelled to rebuild his buggy so the wheels would be farther apart, because when he drove to Minnesota from southern Illinois the ruts in the road were so deep that the wheels were down in the ruts to the axle.

Vocabulary used in the reading took on added meaning when the visitors used them. The fathers of some of them had "pre-empted" or "filed a claim." The full significance of "claim-jumping" was grasped when one man told how his father had had his claim "jumped" when he was in Wisconsin to interest others in Minnesota. When he returned to his claim in the spring he found another cabin had been built. Without delay he gathered together a few friends and burned the claim-jumper's cabin and ordered him away under threats. Such was frontier justice. Then the legal claimant walked a hundred miles to St. Paul to properly "register his claim." They received firsthand information as to what was required to "prove up" a claim or "homestead" according to the Homestead Act of 1862.

LIVING near the school was a man who had come from Belgium about twenty years ago. Rumors were abroad that Mr. H. had been forced to flee into Holland under cover of night because the Germans suspected him of giving information to the French. The children wanted to find out if this were true, so they decided it would be interesting to interview Mr. H. But here a new difficulty presented itself, because he spoke very little English. In the school were two children whose parents had come from Holland a few years ago. It was generally known in school that these parents did not know how to speak English. It was evident that the children from that family were embarrassed because their folks were not as wholly Americanized as some of the others. The girls and boys were discussing ways and means when George, the Dutch boy, spoke up and said, "I'll go and see him because the way the Belgians speak is a lot

like Dutch, and I can speak Dutch. So can my sister." George was envied because he and his sister could make a contribution that none of the others were able to make.

During the noon hour the teacher took George and his sister to see Mr. H. When he heard why they had come he was thrilled. The gray eyes beneath the bushy brows sparkled, and in spite of several days' growth of beard on his face, he radiated the inner joy he experienced when he realized he was of enough importance to have a part in what the school was doing. However, he was very much perturbed over something and he wanted help from the teacher. The mice had eaten his "papers" and now he had nothing to prove he was a citizen. Happily the teacher was able to tell him he need not worry because his papers were recorded.

When he was asked why he came to America, he hesitated for a short time before replying. Then in his native tongue and broken English, with an occasional brushing away of a tear with the back of his brown, toil-worn hand, and with a tremble in his voice he told why he left Europe. The following is his story as he told it without interruptions, except when he hesitated to be sure he was understood.

In 1914 the German soldiers marched across Belgium. They marched across my farm, thousands and thousands of them. They trampled down my fields. Some of them stayed right there. They took my cows, my horses, my pigs, and my chickens. They gave me paper money but it wasn't any good. I took a cow, two pigs, and chickens into the house with us. They took everything else.

One morning at sunrise I went out. Near my stable a big hole had been dug. Beside it six German soldiers were standing. A little way off were some German officers. A signal was given, shots were fired, and the six German soldiers fell into the hole. The officers said they were traitors.

And the cannon. The booming of cannon night and day and shells flying over our heads. Not a window left in the house. I wake up in the night now when it thunders and think it is cannon.

Oh, it's bad in the old country. Bad! Bad! My God! Those young boys shot to pieces by shell. I want my boys to live—to live and have homes that won't be shot to pieces by cannon—so we came here.

When the three people who had heard this story returned to school the children were very anxious to hear the results of the interview. That was a solemn afternoon. Even the little six-year-olds did not miss the significance of it. No amount of reading; no teaching, regardless of how effectively planned, could have accomplished what that man's story did in teaching the horrors of war.

The visit to Mr. H. led directly to another phase of social studies. George was curious to know what he meant by his "papers." The teacher explained to him about naturalization papers. He listened intently, then said, "I wonder if my folks got their papers." This incident resulted in an intensive study of the process of obtaining citizenship, and the problem of assimilation and Americanization.

URBAN PROBLEMS

THE teacher was interested in finding out to what extent rural children were interested in, and able to sense, problems that were decidedly non-rural. She was on the alert for a lead and it came one day during the lunch hour. Someone asked the group if they had seen the big house being built in a certain part of Mankato. No one had seen it, so the one who had began describing the size, style, and other features. The children were noticeably interested so the teacher said if they cared to do so she would take them during that noon hour. Eight pupils, ranging in age from ten to fifteen, made the trip. After the first house had been duly inspected and commented upon they drove along Oak Knoll, a beautiful residence section, where the homes were those of successful professional people. Their attention was called to attractive, less pretentious homes; to two- and three-family houses; to the large apartment

buildings; to the apartments above the stores in the business section; then to Blank Street down by the railroad tracks; to shacks on the outskirts of town, including one of packing cases and sheets of tin located near the city dump; finally to the "jungles" by the river where transients sleep on the ground.

The following questions and remarks proved to the writer that those children sensed a major social problem existed and needed to be solved: Who are the ones that live in the different kinds of houses? "Why is there such a difference in the homes? I suppose a lot of those who live on Blank Street are on WPA or maybe they don't have work at all. I'd hate to be a kid that would have to live above those stores and have no place to play. No wonder so many of the kids that the cops pick up are from Blank Street. Why do men stay in the 'jungles'? I bet they didn't have to work so they left home. It hardly seems fair that some folks have such nice big homes and others don't have anything. Is Mankato doing anything about it? Couldn't Roosevelt do something about those men in the jungles so they could have a home?"

CONCLUSION

THE opportunities and possibilities in rural schools seem almost infinite. A study of the "here and now" will lead to a better understanding of, and greater interest in, the things that are more remote. The settlement of one's own community naturally becomes part of the Westward Movement. Political and economic conditions in Europe are no longer dry history when children find out what significant factors they were in the lives of their grandparents or some old neighbor.

The writer is of the opinion that we teachers in the rural communities fail to realize that the house with the golden windows is our own little school, be it a modern building with an oil burner and electric lights, or a box-type building with a jacketed stove and a kerosene lamp.

Pamphlets on Social Problems: Part II

Mary P. Keohane and Maure Goldschmidt

Agriculture

Adrift on the Land (Public Affairs Pams.), by P. S. Taylor. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett Co., 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.). 1940. 32p. 10¢.

Content: annual migration of farm workers in wheat, fruit, cotton, sugar beets, who differ from recent migrants forced off the land; problems, labor struggles; health; educational facilities; civil liberties as affected by inclosure movement and industrialization of agriculture.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* adults; above-average seniors or juniors. *Illus.:* photos; maps.

The Farm Business, by R. L. Horne. Univ. of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Ave., Chicago. rev. ed. 1938. 56p. 25¢.

Content: prices; overproduction vs. underconsumption; debts and the mortgage problem; the tariff; the AAA; balanced production.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* discussion of principles underlying farm aid program insure usefulness for considerable time. *Readability:* sr. h. s. students; better jr. h. s. students. *Illus.:* original cartoon sketches, clever, pointed.

This bibliography was prepared at the University of Chicago by Mrs. Keohane and Dr. Goldschmidt for the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Part I, published in October, listed thirty-three pamphlets on national defense and foreign affairs. Next month the series will be concluded with sections on Labor Problems, Political Parties, Public Opinion, Taxation, Technology, and other topics. For an introduction and a summary of thirteen important pamphlet series, see last month's issue of *Social Education*, pages 447-48.

The Farmer's Search for Economic Democracy, by T. A. Tripp. Council for Social Action, 289 4th Ave., N.Y. 1941. 34p. 15¢.

Content: agrarian unrest and revolt before the First World War; depression of the early '30s; the farm problem today.

Object: to inform city people of farmers' problems. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* two photos; one cartoon.

Rich Land, Poor Land (L. I. D. Pam. Series), by Stuart Chase. League for Industrial Democracy, 112 E. 19th St., N.Y. 1937. 27p. 15¢.

Content: original wealth of material resources contrasted with current depletion of natural resources; necessity of conservation and planning.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* very readable for sr. h. s.; possibly jr. h. s.

Depression Pioneers (Social Problems Series), by D. C. Coyle. W. P. A., Division of Social Research, 1734 New York Ave. N.W., Washington. 1939. 19p. free.

Content: problem of migrants; kinds of migrants; reasons for migration.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* while migration caused by lack of economic opportunity continues. *Readability:* simple; concrete; good-writing; sr. h. s.; some jr. h. s. *Illus.:* black and white sketches.

Civil Liberties

Civil Liberties (Building America). Society for Curriculum Study (Americana Corp., 2 W. 45th St., N.Y.) 1939. 32p. 30¢.

Content: what civil liberties are; infringements of civil liberties; defending civil liberties.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* jr. h. s.; sr. h. s. *Illus.:* excellent photos.

Civil Liberties in American Cities. American Civil Liberties Union, 31 Union Sq. W., N.Y. 1939. 17p. mimeographed.

Content: policy of 332 cities over 10,000 as to free

speech, public assembly, free press, radio, theatre, movies, picketing, parades, unions.

Object: report of survey on civil liberties. *Reliability:* no better than informants' accuracy, but general outlines of picture probably reliable. *Timeliness:* as of 1939, but such conditions change fast only in wartime. *Readability:* sr. h. s.; jr. h. s.

Freedom of Assembly (Defense Digest Series). American Assoc. for Adult Educ., 60 E. 42nd St., N.Y. 1940. 13p. 10¢.

Content: the problem of free assembly; history in United States; possible future courses.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes for civil liberty. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* seniors can read; not easy.

Freedom of Assembly and Anti-Democratic Groups (Council for Democracy). American Council on Public Affairs, 1734 I St. N.W., Washington. 1940. 27p. 25¢.

Content: invasion of freedom of assembly in order to restrain anti-democratic groups; English measures to check dangerous activities; courses for United States.

Object: to help form public opinion. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* seniors; difficult in parts.

Invitation to Freedom, by H. N. MacCracken and C. G. Post. Conference on Democratic Processes in the State of New York, 152 Washington Ave., Albany. 1941. 32p. 10¢.

Content: meaning of democracy; religious liberty, freedom of speech and press, equal protection and due process, protection against search and seizure.

Object: to increase understanding of civil liberty. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s.; concrete style; many cases quoted.

Religious Liberty in the United States Today. American Civil Liberties Union, 31 Union Sq. W., N.Y. 1939. 48p. 10¢.

Content: restrictions on denominations, freethinkers, atheists; religion in public schools; oaths, compulsory military service.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* doubtful in places due to standardized liberal viewpoint. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* adults; sr. h. s.

Rights We Defend (Our Freedoms Series), by C. S. Williams. Row, Peterson, 1911 Ridge Ave., Evanston. 1940. 72p. 48¢.

Content: Old-world background of civil rights; civil rights and the Declaration of Independence; the Constitution; civil rights in the modern world. (Other volumes in this series deal separately with each of several liberties.)

Object: to explain the importance of the Bill of Rights and to arouse enthusiasm for it. *Reliability:*

competent. *Timeliness:* good for indefinite period. *Readability:* jr. h. s.; sr. h. s. *Illus.:* drawings; color sketches.

Safeguarding Our Civil Liberties (Public Affairs Pamphlets), by R. E. Cushman. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1940. 31p. 10¢.

Content: dangers to civil liberty; analysis of Bill of Rights; division of labor between state and federal governments in protecting civil liberty; safeguards against violations.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* prepared by a leading authority on constitutional law. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* abstract; difficult for sr. h. s. *Illus.:* cartoons.

Conservation

C. C. C.: Hands to Save the Soil. Civilian Conservation Corps, Washington. 1939. 22p. free. (Other C. C. C. free pamphlets are *The C. C. C. and Wild Life*, *Forest Improvements by the C. C. C.*, and *Reforestation by the C. C. C.*)

Content: work of the C. C. C. in checking erosion; types of soil conservation.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* as long as C. C. C. lasts. *Readability:* jr. h. s.; sr. h. s.; short text explains photos. *Illus.:* beautifully illustrated with excellent photos.

National Resources Planning Facts. National Resources Committee, Washington. 1939. 10p. free.

Content: importance of planning; scope of planning; description of work of N. R. C.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s.

The Northern Lakes States Region. National Resources Committee, Washington. 1939. 35p. 10¢.

Content: summary of N. R. C. report on Regional Planning, Part VIII, May, 1939; description of economic development; present economic plight; economic resources; conclusions; recommendations necessary to make area self-supporting.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* maps.

Our Energy Resources. National Resources Committee, Washington. 1939. 42p. 10¢.

Content: summary of N. R. C. report on "Energy Resources and National Policy," Jan. 1939; data on sources of energy; analysis of problem of conservation; recommendations regarding public policy on conservation.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s.

Regional Planning. National Resources Committee, Washington. 1938. 28p. 10¢.

Content: summary of N. R. C. report, "Regional Factors in National Planning and Development" and special N. R. C. studies of regions; regional planning in metropolitan areas, river basins, Alaska, etc.; recommendations.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* maps.

Saving Our Soil (Public Affairs Pams.), by M. S. Stewart. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1937. 32p. 10¢.

Content: causes of erosion; methods of conservation; program of conservation.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* based on reports of N. R. C. and U. S. Department of Agriculture. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

The States and Planning. National Resources Committee, Washington. 1938. 30p. 10¢.

Content: summary of N. R. C. report on the "Future of State Planning," March 1938; history of state planning; relation of state planning to rest of state government; nature and scope of state planning; recommendations.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* map.

Technology and Planning. National Resources Committee, Washington. 1938. 31p. 10¢.

Content: summary of N. R. C. report on "Technological Trends and National Policy," July, 1937; importance of technology; resistance to technological change; social effects of technological change; new inventions which may affect American life in next 25 years.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

Consumer Problems

Advertising (Building America). Society for Curriculum Study (Americana Corp., 2 W. 45th St., N.Y.) 1939. 31p. 30¢.

Content: history of American advertising; modern methods, effect on consumer; criticism; defense.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* facts reliable; uses second-hand information when first-hand could be obtained. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* jr. or sr. h. s.; text difficult for jr. h. s. in places but illus. make readable. *Illus.:* excellent photos.

Business and Government, by J. C. Creighton and Joseph Senturia. Univ. of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Ave., Chicago. rev. ed., 1938. 25¢.

Content: changes in relationship since Washington's time; government regulation of working conditions,

investments; competition vs. monopoly; consumer protection; New Deal and business.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* current; parts discussing principles of relationship between business and government relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* cartoon sketches.

Chain Stores: Pro and Con (Public Affairs Pams.), by Helen Dallas. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1941. 31p. 10¢.

Content: relative business done by chains; analysis of how chains cut costs; social implications of chain store control; absentee-ownership; concentration of control; decline of independent enterprise.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* prepared by Institute for Consumer Education. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent except as affected by additional chain-store legislation. *Readability:* most jr. h. s.; easy for sr. h. s. *Illus.:* cartoons.

Consumer Cooperative Movement, by H. W. Laidler and W. J. Campbell. League for Industrial Democracy, 112 E. 19th St., N.Y. rev. ed., 1940. 64p. 15¢.

Content: social interpretation of consumers' cooperative movement, by Laidler; factual study—history of cooperatives in European democracies, in fascist countries, in Russia, in United States—by Campbell.

Object: to inform; to arouse interest in consumer movement. *Reliability:* competent; thorough. *Timeliness:* much relatively permanent; statistics subject to revision. *Readability:* sr. h. s.

The Consumer Spends His Income. National Resources Committee, Washington. 1939. 47p. 10¢.

Content: summary of N. R. C. reports on consumer incomes in the United States, August, 1938; consumer expenditures in the United States, March, 1939; estimates of consumer income; analysis of consumer expenditures in 1935-36.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

59¢ of Your \$1—The Cost of Distribution (Public Affairs Pams.), by T. R. Carskadon. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1940. 30p. 10¢.

Content: what costs are; why so high; suggestions for reducing.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* based on a study of distribution made by the Twentieth Century Fund in 1938. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* fair for seniors; last few pages on conclusions too difficult for most seniors. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

How We Spend Our Money (Public Affairs Pams.), by M. S. Stewart. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) rev., 1941. 32p. 10¢.

Content: typical incomes of various occupations and of average American family in various areas; amount of money devoted by various income groups in different parts of United States to food, shelter, household operation, clothing, transportation, medical care, personal care, amusement, education, church, charity, savings.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* based on studies of Bureau of Labor Statistics, and Bureau of Home Economics in cooperation with National Resources Committee. *Timeliness:* unlikely to be superseded in near future. *Readability:* story form; concrete; excellent for jr. h. s. or sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

Read Your Labels (Public Affairs Pams.), by Helen Dallas and Maxine Enlow. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1941. 30p. 10¢.

Content: hazards faced by consumers; protecting consumer by legislation and otherwise.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* prepared for Institute for Consumer Education. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s. *Illus.:* pictographs.

Your Income and Mine (Public Affairs Pams.), by M. S. Stewart. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1938. 31p. 10¢.

Content: influence of occupation, geography, age, sex, and color on income; income changes since 1929; effect of business cycle, strikes and increased efficiency on income; nature of income—indirect, direct.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* summary of Levin, *The Income Structure of the U. S.*, published by Brookings Institution. *Timeliness:* based upon 1936 data; still useful. *Readability:* better seniors; statistical character increases difficulty. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

Crime

Crime (Building America). Society for Curriculum Study (Americana Corp., 2 W. 45th St., N.Y.) 1938. 32p. 30¢.

Content: causes of crime; treatment of criminals; proposals for reducing crime.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* useful for jr. h. s. because of illus.; text difficult for jr. h. s. *Illus.:* excellent photos.

Crime, by Nathaniel Cantor. Univ. of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Ave., Chicago. rev. ed., 1938. 25¢.

Content: who are criminals; reasons for crime; juvenile delinquency; crime prevention.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* interesting to sr. h. s. and average jr. h. s. students. *Illus.:* original cartoon sketches.

The Juvenile Court: A Community Concern, by B. S. Alper. Council for Social Action, 289 4th Ave., N.Y. 1940. 15¢.

Content: reasons for delinquency; rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents; procedure of a good juvenile court; deficiencies in treatment of juvenile offenders; further measures to prevent delinquency.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* an excellent treatment of a difficult subject. *Timeliness:* comparatively permanent. *Readability:* style—concrete, simple; sr. h. s.; some jr. h. s. *Illus.:* photos.; graphs.

What Makes a Crime? (Public Affairs Pams.), by W. D. Lane. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1939. 31p. 10¢.

Content: causes; personality; environmental conditions; crime statistics; cost; treatment of criminals; parole; probation; confinement; fines; crime prevention.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* first part for jr. h. s.; latter part for sr. h. s. and adults. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

Democracy and Dictatorship

The A B C of the U. S. A. National League of Women Voters, 726 Jackson Pl., Washington. 1939. 15p. 10¢.

Content: equality of opportunity; individual freedom; majority rule; written constitutions; the federal system; checks and balances; efficient administration; party system; patronage; problems of democratic leadership.

Object: to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* subject matter philosophical; facts, when given, correct. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s.

The American Way (You and Industry Series). National Assoc. of Manufacturers, 14 W. 49th St., N.Y. 1940. 22p. free.

Content: gives data to show American standards of living highest in world; argues this is result of free enterprise and individualism.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* includes a number of questionable fact statements. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* dull; abstract; seniors can read but won't. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

Building the Third Reich (World Affairs Pams.), by J. C. DeWilde. Foreign Policy Assoc., 22 E. 38th St., N.Y. 1939. 56p. 25¢.

Content: Nazi ideology; organization and mission of the Nazi party; the totalitarian Nazi state; regimentation of economic life; foreign policy.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* sr. h. s.

Democracy and Its Competitors (Unit Studies in American Problems) by E. S. Kalp and R. W. Morgan. North Central Association of

Schools and Colleges (Ginn and Co., Statler Building, Boston) 1940. 96p. 48¢.

Content: forms of government in England, pre-1940 France, United States, Germany, and other totalitarian countries.

Object: to inform; to build attitude favorable to democracy. *Reliability:* scholarship is doubtful; sources quoted often questionable; many statements would not pass comparative criticism. *Timeliness:* partly outdated; much useful until post-war reorganization. *Readability:* sr. h. s.; many quotations of abstract material difficult. *Illus.:* photos.; charts.

Freedom or Fascism? Yale Univ. Press, New Haven. 1940. 56p. 25¢.

Content: Fascism and home life, education, religion, business, labor, personal liberty, control of government.

Object: to arouse enthusiasm for democracy. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* while Hitler regime lasts. *Readability:* popular, vivid style; sr. h. s. *Illus.:* black-and-white, semi-cartoon drawings.

How Nazi Germany Has Mobilized and Controlled Labor, by L. Hamburger. Brookings, 722 Jackson Pl., Washington. 1940. 63p. 25¢.

Content: aims of Nazi labor policy; instrument of control of labor; how labor actually controls work; labor controls under war conditions.

Object: to inform. *Reliability:* highly competent. *Timeliness:* duration of Hitler regime. *Readability:* not popular style; clear; concrete nature of material makes it readable for sr. h. s.

Russia—Democracy or Dictatorship? (L. I. D. Pam. Series), by Norman Thomas and Joel Seidman. League for Industrial Democracy, 112 E. 19th St., N.Y. 1939. 71p. 25¢.

Content: analysis of Soviet system with conclusion that it is dictatorial; description of Russian practices regarding civil rights, freedom of movement, control of propaganda, education, the arts, trade unions, elections.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* appears to be accurate but impossible to verify. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* better seniors; teachers.

Health

Health Security for the Nation (L. I. D. Pam. Series), by J. A. Kingsbury. League for Indus-

trial Democracy, 112 E. 19th St., N.Y. 1938. 39p. 15¢.

Content: conditions which make compulsory health insurance necessary; favors extension of other public health services.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* author former director, Milbank Memorial Fund. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* better seniors; teachers.

Social Security (L. I. D. Pam. Series), by Abraham Epstein. League for Industrial Democracy, 112 E. 19th St., N.Y. 1937. 38p. 10¢

Content: justification of social insurance; lessons from abroad; analysis of Social Security Act; criticisms and suggestions for health-insurance program.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* author an authority in this field. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent in spite of minor changes in act. *Readability:* better seniors; teachers.

Toward a Healthy America (Public Affairs Pams.), by Paul deKruif. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1939. 31p. 10¢.

Content: death and disease rates; program for larger public health budgets; training courses for doctors; health centers; hospitals, laboratory and treatment facilities.

Object: to inform; to influence attitudes. *Reliability:* competent. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent unless such a program should be instituted in the near future. *Readability:* difficult for seniors. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

Who Can Afford Health? (Public Affairs Pams.), by W. D. Lane. Public Affairs Committee (Silver Burdett, 45 E. 17th St., N.Y.) 1939. 31p. 10¢.

Content: amount of sickness in various income groups; social and economic effects of sickness; program for increasing public responsibility.

Object: to inform; to influence public opinion in favor of additional public health facilities. *Reliability:* prepared on basis of National Health Survey made by Government Interdepartmental Committee to coordinate Health and Welfare Activities. *Timeliness:* relatively permanent. *Readability:* story form, illustrations, concrete style make it readable for jr. h. s. though vocabulary difficult. *Illus.:* pictorial statistics.

Have You Read?

Wilbur F. Murra

THE historian's work cannot be well done until events have receded far enough to be capable of being clearly focussed, until the deafening thunder and terrifying lightning have passed over, until secrecy and censorship have been sufficiently relaxed to permit the examination of documents on both sides, and until the historian's own emotions have calmed down." So writes Herbert Heaton in the leading article in Volume I, Number I (September issue) of the new *Current History*.

"Yet," adds Professor Heaton, "silence is almost as difficult and dangerous for a historian as for a baby, and in fact virtually impossible." After analyzing the elements of a personal inner conflict—in which a consciousness of the historical law of change argues against a personal resistance to the changes now actually being effected—Dr. Heaton concludes that, after all, change is not necessarily for the better; "and the historian must be ready, along with the economist, technician, and others, to play his part in shaping a world that may be better or worse than the one we have known and that certainly will be very different."

GERMANY AFTER THE WAR

GERMANY should not be dismembered after the war, says Sidney B. Fay in the September *Current History*. "If there is one clear lesson of history," he declares, "it is that there can be no greater mistake than to attempt to impose a domestic regime on another country. The attempt never succeeds permanently. It usually has exactly the opposite effect of that intended."

Decentralization of Germany by restora-

tion of power to its constituent states might be a good thing—if it is not imposed from without but is arranged of their own free will by anti-Hitler elements within Germany. Such decentralization, says Professor Fay, would please German liberals and democrats, for it would cut down the influence of the militarists and big industrialists. Any such decentralized federal state, however, should not permit Prussia as great a degree of hegemony over the other states as she formerly possessed under the Empire and the Weimar Republic.

While Professor Fay is convinced that the government of a defeated Germany must be entrusted to the hands of anti-Hitler Germans, he does not identify those groups. There are many who are telling us, however, that such groups may be expected to be drawn from the leadership of the German army. Widespread rumors have been giving out the impression that the High Command is hostile to the Nazis and loyal to the old German ideals. All such rumors are myths, deliberately fostered by the Nazi propaganda agencies, explodes Thomas Reville in the *New Republic* for October 6. In an article entitled "Hitler Swallows the High Command," Mr. Reville (pseudonym for a government official, whose book *The Spoils of Europe* has just been published by Norton) produces extensive evidence to prove that the Nazi party and the German army are now virtually identical.

HEMISPHERE DEFENSE

RELATIONS between Latin America and the United States receive an exceptionally "tough-minded" analysis at the hands of Duncan Aikman in the October

issue of the *Atlantic Monthly*. Mr. Aikman tells us candidly that the Latins aren't like us, and many of them don't like us. They are, on the whole, little concerned with democracy. Their economic and cultural ties are naturally more inclined toward Europe than toward North America. In fact, if the Germans should win the war, appeasement by most South American countries is to be expected—*unless* the United States takes strong action to forestall such an eventuality.

The policy of wooing Latin America through "good neighbor" propaganda and economic advantages, now dominant in Washington, has its merits; but, insists Mr. Aikman, it isn't fundamental to hemisphere defense, and its success in achieving hemisphere solidarity is doubtful. The line of policy by the United States which will most surely gain the support of the Latin-American republics, we are told, is one characterized by vigorous anti-Axis action coupled with evidence of a will and the power to defend the hemisphere! For instance, the United States must insist on and arrange for military and naval bases in Latin America. The most effective step of all, says Mr. Aikman, would be American entry into the war. He bluntly urges a United States declaration of war against Germany as a means of strengthening inter-American relations.

DEFENSE MIGRATION

SAN DIEGO was one of the fastest growing cities of the nation during the decade of the 1930's, when it added 55,000 persons. But the growth of those ten years was slow compared with what has happened since the Census took its count in April, 1940. During the past eighteen months San Diego has absorbed as many new inhabitants as it had done for the preceding decade! Bremerton, Washington, has grown from 10,000 to 15,000 during the past year; Mobile, Alabama, from 80,000 to 120,000. Alexandria, Louisiana, has increased by 130 per cent in two years; Waynesville, Missouri, by 400 per cent. Two hundred thou-

sand immigrants from west of the Hudson have moved into New England within the past twenty months.

The migrants are, of course, motivated chiefly by the lure of jobs in "defense" centers. "For every newcomer who finds a job," however, "at least three migrants get no work, but they hang about the town."

These swift and uncontrolled population displacements are creating serious municipal problems for the communities affected. The lack of adequate educational facilities is only too well-known to many teachers. Problems of housing and medical care are equally severe. And, paradoxically, so are the problems of increased unemployment and relief—in boom towns! It is news that most of the rapidly growing cities in the United States in 1941 are resisting their own growth. The Portland *Oregonian* headlined its local situation by saying "Labor Influx Undesired."

Cities which lack defense industries, such as Holyoke, Haverill, and Willimantic, and rural areas generally are hard hit by population depletion and labor shortages.

The House of Representatives has recognized the existence of the problem by creating a Select Committee to Investigate National Defense Migration, under the chairmanship of Congressman John H. Tolan. But little has so far been done on a national scale to cope with the situation. Passage of the Lanham Act last June, providing \$150,000,000 in federal funds for the development of municipal facilities in defense areas, is the most important step to date. This is not nearly enough, in the opinion of most of the affected municipalities.

Individual news items and personal experience in particular places have brought home to most readers of *Social Education* an awareness of the defense migration problem. For an enlightening over-all review of the situation, read "The Great Defense Migration" by Blair Bolles in the October issue of *Harper's*.

Curiously not mentioned by Mr. Bolles

is the biggest boom town of all—Washington, D.C. In an effort to cope with the gargantuan task of managing the defense program on a national scale the federal government is adding new employees in the nation's capital at the rate of 5,000 a month. The resulting problems of housing shortages, rent rises, traffic jams, and municipal government are vividly pictured by Donald Wilhelm in the September issue of the *American Mercury*.

OUR ALIENS

A SYMPATHETIC and enlightening picture of the 4,750,000 aliens now in the United States is presented in the October issue of the *American Mercury* by Raymond Moley and Celeste Jedel. The loyalty of the overwhelming majority of these persons is strongly protested by the authors. About 1,750,000 of them are now going through the naturalization process. Many of the rest never knew that they weren't citizens until recent laws brought home this fact to them. A very large percentage are old people—especially women. The median age of our aliens is 48 as contrasted with 28 for the population as a whole. Unnecessarily complicated legal red tape prevents large numbers of aliens from becoming citizens even though they want to. "An overhauling of our naturalization laws is clearly necessary," insist the authors.

HISTORY warns us that the developing crisis will tend to put in jeopardy the civil liberties, self-respect, and patriotic cooperation of numerous minority groups in American society. "In the current crisis, it is imperative that the people of the United States avoid all activities which might force those of foreign birth into an unwholesome suspicion-encircled isolation from the common American life," says the editorial note which introduces Carl Wittke's essay on "The German Americans" in the Summer number of *Common Ground*.

Professor Wittke, of Oberlin College,

writes avowedly in an effort to stem the tide of persecution which is threatening to rise against American citizens of German descent. It is to be regretted that his message is limited to the readers of *Common Ground*, nearly all of whom will agree with him to begin with. Two of the three divisions of the article are historical.

A gradual fusion process, by which German-language newspapers, churches, and societies will disappear as German Americans become more completely integrated into our national life, is predicted as the normal expectancy. The process, however, can be retarded by native Americans' own actions; their hysteria and narrow nativism will tend to drive the foreign-born back upon themselves and their Old World culture and set them apart. Majority groups as well as minorities have obligations if we are to have national unity and a strengthened democracy.

FARM FRONTIERS NEEDED

MECHANIZATION of agriculture continues to increase at accelerating tempo, especially in the Middle West. The result so far is a gain for the individual farmer who operates a few hundred acres and finds his output per man-hour of labor greatly increased. At the same time the result is a loss for society in terms of the growing displacement of small farmers, both tenants and owners, and the increasing unemployment of agricultural wage laborers. Both of these results are portrayed with statistical summaries and case studies in the May *Harper's* by Paul S. Taylor.

The most urgent problem in the whole situation is the plight of the landless and jobless rural population, in the opinion of Professor Taylor. Only last year an official of the Department of Agriculture declared that 25,000 Middle Western farmers were unable to find a farm to rent. Migration has taken some of them to new rural areas and others to cities, but neither outlet provides much in the way of opportunities.

One minor contribution to the problem is suggested in the news that five million previously untilled acres are currently being opened for farming in the lowlands that hug both sides of the Mississippi River from Cairo to the Gulf. This news is reported by John Bird in the August *Country Gentleman*. He says that these lowlands are "the largest single area available for settlement today." They have been made safe for farming by a decade of effort on the part of government engineers, who have built levees and drainage systems. Now farmers are said to be "rushing" to the new land. But they are confronted with difficult problems of purchasing their farms and of finding suitable market crops other than cotton, for cotton-raising acreage is now restricted.

MAPS AS WEAPONS

GEOPOLITICS is a "science" that flourished in post-Versailles Germany to the end of making the German people more conscious of geographical relationships than any other people on the globe. The chief tool of geopolitics is the map, which the Germans have well learned can be used for propaganda as well as for information. Skillful use of maps—especially "dynamic" maps showing movements and changes, real and possible—convinced the German people of their need for *Lebensraum*, of the "atrocities" of the Polish Corridor, of the "injustice" of the British Empire, and of Czechoslovakia's "threat" to Germany.

An analysis of maps as shapers of opinion constitutes an original and stimulating article in the October *Survey Graphic* by H. W. Weigert. The author observes hopefully that war news and war maps are currently making Americans more "space conscious" than ever before. But we have yet to learn the important art of using maps as weapons of propaganda. We can learn this art if we will study German techniques. And it is highly important that we do so, says Mr. Weigert. Effective illustrations help to clinch the message of the article.

FREE WORLD

HETEROGENEITY of national origins and homogeneity of political opinions with respect to fascism and democracy characterize the distinguished group of contributors to the first (October) issue of *Free World*, "a new anti-fascist monthly devoted to international affairs and the fight for democracy." The contributors include Count Carlo Sforza, T. V. Soong, Edouard Benes, Nicholas Murray Butler, Norman Angell, and Cordell Hull. The first issue is handsomely bound, well illustrated, and contains 120 pages. In a congratulatory editorial in the *Nation* (September 27), Freda Kirchwey says that the launching of the new journal symbolizes a "united front" against Nazism—"a fact from which even the most dispirited and cynical must draw hope."

EVENTS TO CURRENT HISTORY

SOcial studies teachers who deal with current events in their classrooms have a more than ordinary interest in the merger last summer of the magazines *Events* and *Current History and Forum*. The new magazine is in reality a continuation, in editorial policy and format, of *Events*; but it has taken the name *Current History*. It is edited by Spencer Brodney, who edited the old *Current History* from 1931 to 1936, when it was owned by the *New York Times*, and who was editor of *Events* throughout its lifetime (from January, 1937, to June, 1941).

The new *Current History* is noteworthy for (a) its policy of restricting itself to straight factual reporting of the world's events and for (b) having its staff of regular contributors consist exclusively of professional historians and social scientists of the "academic" type. Teachers will be interested in the offer of reduced rates for bulk orders for classroom use and the announcement that a "study guide with tests" is available for each issue. The address is 157 Chambers Street, New York.

Notes and News

National Meetings

Indianapolis is preparing to be host to the Twenty-first Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, November 20-22, at the Claypool Hotel. A thousand teachers from all parts of the nation are expected to attend. The meeting opens officially at 4 P.M. on Thanksgiving Day. It closes with the business meeting on Saturday afternoon. An attractive and varied program has been arranged by Roy A. Price, first vice-president of the Council. Complete programs will have been received by all members before this announcement appears. Copies may be secured by others upon request to the secretary's office. The third speaker on the Saturday morning general session, not mentioned in the advance program, will be Prof. R. H. Tawney, professor of economic history at the University of London.

The National Foundation for Education in American Citizenship and the National Council for the Social Studies will jointly sponsor a conference on "Education for Citizen Responsibilities" at Indianapolis on Thanksgiving Day. Both sessions of the conference will be held at the Claypool. Opening addresses on "Education and the Growing Responsibilities of Citizens" will begin at 10 A.M. Speakers will include Homer C. Hockett, professor of history at Ohio State University, and Howard E. Wilson, of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University. The afternoon session, starting at 2 P.M., will begin with a consideration of "What to Teach in Educating Citizens." Prepared statements on this theme by outstanding social scientists will first be discussed, after which a panel of teachers and social scientists will consider problems of integrating the social sciences. The conference will conclude with an address on "The Present and the Future in Citizenship Education" by William F. Russell, dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, and director of the National Citizenship Education Program sponsored by the Department of Justice. The conference program has been arranged by Frank-

lin L. Burdette of Butler University and Howard White of Miami University.

During the Christmas holidays will be held several annual meetings of national organizations of scholars. The American Historical Association will meet in Chicago. The American Sociological Society, the American Political Science Association, and the American Economic Association will all meet in New York. Also in New York will be the National Council of Geography Teachers. The National Council for the Social Studies will hold meetings simultaneously in Chicago and New York—with the AHA and the APSA, respectively. Full details on the latter meetings will be given next month.

New England

The fall meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association will be held at Simmons College, Boston, on Friday and Saturday, November 7 and 8. The program is devoted to the Far East—its role in world affairs and its place in the school curriculum. Registration begins at 4:30 P.M. on Friday, after which there will be a buffet supper and an address by Carl J. Pelzer of Johns Hopkins University. On Saturday morning the program includes a demonstration class with elementary school pupils; statements on "What I Should Like to Know About the Far East" by six students from secondary schools and colleges; educational motion pictures; a round-table discussion by G. Nye Steiger of Simmons College, Dorothy Borg of the Institute of Pacific Relations, Charles Gardner of Harvard University, and Carl Pelzer. The luncheon speaker will be George E. Taylor of the University of Washington. H. K.

Middle States

The Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers will hold its annual fall meeting at Atlantic City on November 22. Opening the morning session will be an eye-witness report on wartime Berlin by Leonard S. Kenworthy, first vice-president of the Association. Analyses of current war prob-

lems in Germany and Russia will be given by Gordon Prang of the University of Maryland and Tibor Kerkes of Georgetown University.

Solon J. Buck, the newly appointed national archivist, will speak at the luncheon. The program has been arranged by Richard J. Purcell, president.

P. O. C.

New York

At Oneonta, on October 3, the Tri-County Social Studies Council sponsored a "Social Studies Clinic," at which Howard Anderson advised on testing, Wallace Taylor on projects and activities, and Loren Woolston and Donald V. Smith on units.

W. W. T.

New York City, with more social studies teachers than any other city in the nation, also has what is probably the largest organization of social studies teachers in the country—excluding the National Council. About nine-hundred high school teachers comprise the Association of Social Studies Teachers in the City of New York. President for the current year is Paul Balser. President of the economics section of the Association is Marcy Cowan, and Saul Israel is president of the history and civics section. A membership meeting is held each month during the school year.

The Association of Chairmen of Social Studies is a separate organization, with about fifty members. James McGill is now president. Representatives of both teachers and chairmen constitute the "standing committee," which is recognized by the Board of Education as having semi-official status in determining teaching and curriculum policies in the social studies for New York City schools.

P. B.

District of Columbia

The Round Table, fifteen-year-old organization of social studies teachers in Washington, has announced a calendar of fourteen meetings during the current school year. The next meeting, to be held at Central High School November 6, will be devoted to reviews by members of recent books in the social sciences. On December 11, Dr. Rex E. Buxton, director of the Washington Institute of Mental Hygiene, will speak on "Adolescent Behavior." A new section has been added to the Round Table to deal with "Latin American History," as a

course in this area is being taught for the first time this semester in the Washington high schools.

G. J. J.

Kentucky

The Kentucky Council for the Social Studies will meet this year at the Western Kentucky State Teachers College, Bowling Green, where the organization was founded five years ago. One of the founders, A. M. Stickles, will address the opening session on Friday evening, November 14. On Saturday morning a panel on "Practical Problems" will consist of John Dickey, on economics; J. K. Powell, on government; John Young, on sociology; and Margaret Hatcher on geography. Jack Allen, of Eastern Kentucky Teachers College, Richmond, will speak at the luncheon.

L. A., H. W. R.

Cincinnati

At its first fall meeting, on November 13, the Social Studies Club of Cincinnati will initiate plans for cooperation with the assistant superintendent in continuing the revision of the high school courses of study, begun two years ago.

I. J. L.

Indiana

Ball State Teachers College at Muncie sponsored an all-day social studies conference on September 27 on behalf of the national public relations committee of the Indiana Council. Robert LaFollette, chairman of the department of social science of the College, arranged a program centered around the dual themes of the social sciences in times of crisis and effective social studies instruction. Robert S. Lynd of Columbia University, addressing the conference twice on the function of knowledge in our society, discussed the "soft spots" of changing American civilization and the task of the social scientist in bringing about intelligent change. A group of eight recent graduates of Ball State conducted a clinic on classroom problems in junior and senior high school social studies.

A large delegation from Bloomington represented the Monroe County Council for the Social Studies. Another affiliate, the Fort Wayne Academy of the Social Sciences, was also well represented. A new affiliate in the Muncie area has been organized, headed by

Herbert Heller of Newcastle High School; it will be represented on the executive board of the Indiana Council by Russell T. McNutt of Muncie.

K. B. T.

Illinois

The School of the Woods Social Studies Laboratory completed its second season on August 29, after a three-week session attended by twenty-eight students and eight faculty members. The School is sponsored by the Illinois Council for the Social Studies in collaboration with Illinois State Normal University, which gives college credit for the work done. General direction of the project was exercised by two officers of the Illinois Council, Robert S. Ellwood and Donald R. Alter. An added feature of this year's Laboratory was collaboration with a nearby camp for underprivileged children. A reunion of all students who attended either the 1940 or the 1941 Laboratory is planned for this fall at Charleston; for information write to the reunion chairman, Mildred Makinson, Forrest, Illinois.

The annual fall meeting of the Illinois Council for the Social Studies will be held at Champaign-Urbana on November 7. Miss Helen Jackson, of Champaign, is in charge of arrangements, representing the East Central Council, of which Homer Fields of Bement is the new president for 1941-42.

Upper Michigan

At Escanaba on October 2 a group of teachers attending a meeting, at which Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota was the speaker, organized the Upper Peninsula Council for the Social Studies. Ferdie Davis of Menominee was elected president and Proctor Maynard of Ishpeming, secretary.

Iowa

T. V. Smith's address on "The Promise of American Politics" will feature the annual fall meeting of the Iowa Council for the Social Studies, to be held at Des Moines, November 6 and 7. There will also be a panel discussion, a talk on South America, a fellowship hour, and exhibits. A "Share Experience Exhibit" has been arranged by Mrs. Clara Strickland of Council Bluffs in cooperation with a statewide committee. This exhibit will consist of visual aids, bulletins, units, record systems,

pupil activities, and other items from the classrooms of member teachers.

J. H. H.

Kansas

Social studies "round-tables" are annually held at each of six sectional meetings of the Kansas State Teachers Association. This year for the first time collaboration in arranging the several round-table programs has been received from the Kansas Council for the Social Studies and the National Council. The latter organizations are sponsoring two meetings to be addressed by Henry Kronenberg of the University of Arkansas, a member of the curriculum committee of the National Council. Dr. Kronenberg will speak on "Evaluation of Kansas Social Studies Programs" at Wichita on November 7, and his topic will be "The Challenge to Social Studies Teachers Today" at Topeka on November 8.

The Kansas Council for the Social Studies was organized last April. Its officers are: Robena Pringle, Topeka High School, president; Della Warden, Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, secretary; and Ruth E. Litchen, Kansas University, treasurer.

The social studies field was given special emphasis this year at the annual educational clinic held at Winfield. Walter E. Myer of Washington, D.C., addressed the meeting; Robena Pringle of Topeka presided; and Grace Karr of Winfield arranged an attractive exhibit.

Oklahoma

Social studies teachers of northeastern Oklahoma met at Tulsa on October 24 to discuss professional problems and to hear addresses on "The Schools and National Defense." Among the speakers were an army major and an agent of the Federal Bureau of Investigation. Co-chairmen for the meeting were Laura Meyer of Muskogee and Elsie Allison of Tulsa.

N. E. B.

American Education Week

November 9-15 is American Education Week, with emphasis on school visits by parents and other school-community relationships. This year's theme is: "Education for a Strong America."

Young Citizens League

The Young Citizens League has flourished since 1912 in South Dakota as an organization of grade school children. Recently it has spread to neighboring states and now holds several state and county conventions. It fosters civic education through purposeful community activity and through experience in pupils' self-government. The founder and present head of the movement is M. M. Guhin, State Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota.

American History in Spanish

The Fondo de Cultura Economica of Mexico City is preparing a Spanish translation of the American history textbook by Harold U. Faulkner, Tyler Kepner, and Hall Bartlett entitled *The American Way of Life* (Harper, 1941). Arrangements for the translation were made by the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress, which will also participate in distributing the book throughout Spanish America.

Teaching Aids

Latin America. For selecting reading material graded to the ability of pupils in elementary schools and junior high schools, a valuable guide is *Latin America: Books for Young Readers* (25 cents; American Library Association, 520 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago). Another graded list, with easy references on Canada and the United States as well as Latin America, was published in the October issue of *Progressive Education* by Edith Thomas, under the title "Books for the Children of the Three Americas." One notable series, especially written for ages 9-14, is *New World Neighbors*, with eight books published to date (D. C. Heath and Company, 285 Columbus Avenue, Boston).

The NEA *Journal* listed a wide variety of teaching aids on Latin America in both the "Elementary-School Service" and "Highschool Service" sections of its September issue.

The Eighth International Conference of the New Education Fellowship was held at Ann Arbor, Michigan, last July. As the first such conference ever held in the Western Hemisphere, it was attended largely by representatives of Canada, the United States, and Latin America. Some of the proceedings relating to study of Latin America in the United States

are published in *Progressive Education* for October. Another product of the conference of special value for teachers is the mimeographed "Report of the Workshop on Latin-American Studies," with source materials, units, lists of readings and visual aids, and teaching suggestions (75 cents; Progressive Education Association, 221 West 57th Street, New York).

Nine pamphlets and a teaching syllabus on Latin America have been assembled in one "resource packet" by the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington. The several items would cost about \$2.25 if purchased separately; as a packet they are available for \$1.50.

The Far East. A resource packet containing seven pamphlets, one book, and a syllabus on the Orient is also available for \$1.50 from the American Council on Education. This collection, containing seven pamphlets, one book, and a syllabus on the Orient, is also available for \$1.50 from the American Council on Education. This packet and the one on Latin America, mentioned in the preceding paragraph, were both prepared by the A. C. E. Committee on Materials for Teachers in International Relations (Phillips Bradley, chairman), with the cooperation of the Foreign Policy Association and the Institute of Pacific Relations.

Timely pamphlets on Far Eastern problems are now being released at intervals of approximately one month by the American Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations. Three have so far appeared and five more are definitely scheduled. All eight may be secured for only one dollar; single copies are 15 cents each (except *Japan Strikes South*, which is 25 cents). Most recent publication in the series is *The Philippines*, by Catherine Porter. *Our Far Eastern Record*, by W. W. Lockood, and *Britain in the Far East*, by Michael Greenberg, will be published shortly. Address: 129 East 52nd Street, New York.

Consumer Problems. A "Bibliography of Books on Consumption, 1930-40," has been compiled especially for teachers by Consumers' Research, Inc., Washington, N.J. It lists textbooks and supplementary books on such topics as "buymanship," budgeting, credit, and health. 20 pages; mimeographed; 20 cents.

Safety. Study of "Safety" is increasing in several branches of the curriculum simulta-

eously. What is being done and what can be done in civics and sociology, respectively, are summarized in two leaflets just released by the Safety Education Projects of the NEA. These leaflets are available at 5 cents each. Supplementing them are a wealth of classroom materials on safety, among which are the following (25 cents each): an annotated bibliography; units for primary and intermediate grades; and dramatizations.

Conservation. A year's unit of study at the Congress Heights School, in a suburban section of Washington, D.C., is described in *Soil and Water Conservation in the Elementary School*. This 123-page mimeographed booklet is available on request from the Soil Conservation Service, Washington.

Immigration. Of interest both to teachers and pupils is the stimulating and suggestive essay of the late Marcus Lee Hansen entitled "Immigration, a Field for Research." Copies may be obtained without charge from the Common Council for American Unity, 222 Fourth Avenue, New York.

Geography. The National Geographic Society, of Washington, D.C., announces that publication of its illustrated *Geographic School Bulletins* for teachers was resumed in October. These bulletins are issued weekly, five bulletins to the weekly set, for thirty weeks of the school year. They are illustrated from the Society's extensive file of geographic photographs.

Teachers are requested to apply early for the number of these bulletins desired. They are obtainable only by teachers, librarians, and college and normal school students. They give timely information about boundary changes, exploration, geographic developments, new industries, and costumes and customs in all parts of the world. Teachers may order bulletins in quantities for class use, to be sent to one address, but 25 cents must be remitted for each subscription, to cover mailing costs.

Defense. A series of more than twenty pamphlets on "Education and National Defense" is currently being issued by the United States Office of Education. Although primarily for teachers, several are suitable for use by high school students. Of general interest and special importance is No. 4, *What the Schools Can Do*, with specific suggestions for classroom and community activities contributing to citi-

zenship and national defense. Of particular interest to social studies teachers is No. 13, *Hemisphere Solidarity: A Teacher's Guide on Inter-American Relations*, and No. 23, *Democracy in the Summer Camp*. Soon to be published is *What Democracy Means*. Price, 15 cents each. Order from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Controversial Issues. For classroom study of controversial social problems, the "Decide for Yourself Packets" of the Institute for Propaganda Analysis are uniquely valuable. Each packet consists of a dozen or more items, each advancing a particular point of view or illustrating a special aspect of a given problem. The items include entire issues of magazines and pamphlets, reprints, posters, mimeographed releases, and so forth. They are, thus, to be used as source materials—not as summaries or texts. Subjects so far treated with separate packets include: "Solutions for Your Health Problem," "Negroes Are Asking About Democracy," "The Loyalties of the Foreign Born," and "What Women's Organizations Are Saying." Each packet sells for \$1.00, from the Institute, 211 Fourth Avenue, New York.

Labor and Defense. The "Calling America" series of special, enlarged numbers of *Survey Graphic* is already familiar to most social studies teachers, who have found the first three informative and well-illustrated numbers in the series to be especially valuable for classroom use. Announced for November publication is the fourth number, to be devoted to industrial relations and defense and entitled "Manning the Arsenal for Democracy." Contributors include: William M. Leiserson, William H. Davis, John H. Tolan, David Dubinsky, and Walter D. Fuller. Price, 50 cents a copy, three for \$1.00. Address Survey Associates, 112 East 19th Street, New York.

Democracy. A 23 x 24 inch poster, "A Creed of Democracy," based on the Columbia Teachers College publication *Education and Democracy in the Current Crisis*, is available from the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, at 20 cents.

Tests in Civics

An annotated bibliography of "Tests in Civics and Citizenship" has been prepared by Newton Rodeheaver and Paul R. Grim under the sponsorship of the Committee on Civic Ed-

ucation of the National Council for the Social Studies. Complete data on such features as content, objectives, grade level, reliability, publisher, and cost are given for each of 62 standardized tests; and in addition the authors have appraised each test with a critical annotation. Portions of the bibliography will appear in *Social Education*. Mimeographed copies may now be secured at 25 cents each from Paul R. Grim, Western Washington College of Education, Bellingham, Washington.

Superior Students

In response to many recent expressions of concern about the problem, the Research Division of the NEA has made a survey of points of view and actual practices in regard to the education of superior students in junior and senior high schools. The results are presented in the September NEA *Research Bulletin*.

Attacks on the Social Studies

The attacks by lay groups on social studies textbooks which flourished last winter and spring are only too familiar to readers of *Social Education*. Two recent magazine articles review those attacks and provide perspective for them by putting them in a setting.

Clarence M. Dannelly, superintendent of schools, Montgomery, Alabama, says that many of the attacks are only a part of a deliberate effort to undermine "public confidence in the schools so that school appropriations may be reduced." His article, "Facing a Major Threat," appeared in the June issue of *The School Executive*.

Kenneth M. Gould gives the recent agitation a historical setting and an excellent contemporary appraisal in a lengthy essay entitled "The War on the Social Studies," in the Autumn issue of *Common Ground*. "The real animus of the textbook critics," says Mr. Gould, "is against the whole modern conception of the social studies as a realistic approach to life. . . . One can argue against restriction of textbooks and curriculum from a dozen abstract standpoints of academic freedom and educational policy. But, in the long run, the basic undeniable argument is that the young people of today who are the citizens of tomorrow have the right to know what the world is all about and to learn what can be done about it."

Recent Magazine Articles on Teaching the Social Studies

Clifton, Robert S. "History Revealed through Art," *Journal of Education*, CXXIV:195-97, September, 1941. Suggestions for correlating art and history in the secondary school.

Cosner, J. D. "A Map Project," *Sierra Educational News*, XXX:19, October, 1941. Gives a step by step account of how a seventh-grade class made a world map 12 feet high by 24 feet wide showing industries.

Heaps, Willard A. "Textbook Controversies and the School Librarian," *Wilson Library Bulletin*, XVI:42-43, September, 1941.

Pitts, Sister M. Hieronyme, O. P. "An Eighth-Grade Study of Inter-American Relations," *Catholic Educational Review*, XXXIX:402-413, September, 1941. A six-week unit initiated and worked out by the pupils of the Sacred Heart School, Washington, D.C.

Sheldon, James A. "Community Life Problems," *Clearing House*, XVI:8-11, September 1941. Description of how ninth-grade social studies pupils investigated the possibilities and responsibilities of effective citizenship in Des Moines, Iowa.

Winslow, G. H. "A Natural Approach to the Teaching of History," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXVII:275-81, April, 1941. A well-considered exposition of the thesis that history should be presented first in broad general patterns and the detail fitted in later. The concrete examples make it helpful to teachers on any grade level.

Young, William E. "Recent Research on Reading in the Social Studies," *Education*, LXII:18-26, September, 1941. A particularly valuable article with 31 footnotes citing research findings. The author concludes: "(1) Improvement in reading abilities generally results in improved achievement in the social studies. (2) Such skills as skimming and reference reading need to be developed and carefully guided. (3) The conversation-story form should be more extensively used. (4) The use of word lists to estimate the reading difficulties of a selection for any particular pupil has limitations. . . . (6) Social studies material would be more meaningful to pupils if the pupils had more adequate experiences to develop the meanings and values implicit in these materials. (7) The development of critical thinking and reading is a long-term process."

Readers are invited to send in items—programs and accounts of meetings, curriculum changes and classroom experiments, or personal items of general interest—for "Notes and News." Items for January should be sent in by December 1. Send to W. F. Murra, 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington.

Contributors to this issue include: D. R. Alter, Leo Ashby, Paul Balser, Nelle Bowman, Paul Carr, John Haefner, G. J. Jones, R. E. Keohane, Horace Kidger, Isabelle Levi, Robena Pringle, H. W. Robey, Wallace Taylor, K. B. Thurston, E. B. Wesley.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Radio

Only programs of special value for the social studies are listed. All times are Eastern Standard.¹ The abbreviation NBC stands for National Broadcasting Company; CBS for the Columbia Broadcasting System; and MBS for the Mutual Broadcasting System. Readers are invited to correspond with the editor of this department concerning any program not listed here which they have found of interest to their classes.

Sundays

- 11:30-11:45 A.M. "Hidden History" NBC-Blue
12:00-12:15 P.M. "Foreign Policy Association Program" NBC-Blue
12:15-12:30 P.M. "I'm an American" NBC-Blue
1:30-2:00 P.M. "The World is Yours" (Smithsonian Institution) NBC-Blue
2:00-2:15 P.M. Upton Close (News of the Far East) NBC-Red
2:00-3:00 P.M. "Wake up America" NBC-Blue
2:30-3:00 P.M. "University of Chicago Round Table" NBC-Red
5:45-6:00 P.M. William L. Shirer—News CBS
7:30-7:45 P.M. "News for the Americas" (Pearson and Allen) NBC-Blue
8:00-8:45 P.M. "Defense Forum" MBS

Mondays

- 9:15-9:45 A.M.¹ "Americans at Work" CBS. Nov. 3, "Soldiers"; Nov. 10, "Road Builders"; Nov. 17, "Chemical Engineers"; Nov. 24, "Food Scientists"
9:30-9:45 A.M. "News Here and Abroad" (Raymond Clapper) NBC-Blue
6:45-7:00 P.M. "The World Today" CBS
7:30-8:00 P.M. "Cavalcade of America" NBC-Red
10:30-11:00 P.M. "National Radio Forum" NBC-Blue

Tuesdays

- 9:15-9:45 A.M.¹ "Music of the Americas" CBS. Nov. 4, "Music Underground"; Nov. 11, "The Rivermen and Sailors"; Nov. 18, "Music of the Woodsman"; Nov. 25, "The Planters"
7:45-8:00 P.M. H. V. Kaltenborn NBC-Red

Wednesdays

- 9:15-9:45 A.M.¹ "New Horizons" CBS
4:00-4:30 P.M. "Round-Table Discussions" CBS
6:00-6:15 P.M. Edwin C. Hill CBS
10:30-11:00 P.M. "Ahead of the Headlines" NBC-Blue

Thursdays

- 9:15-9:45 A.M.¹ "Tales from Far and Near" CBS
9:30-10:30 P.M. "America's Town Meeting of the Air" NBS-Blue
10:30-11:00 P.M. "Good Neighbors" NBC-Red
10:30-10:45 P.M. "Ahead of the Headlines" NBC-Blue

Fridays

- 9:15-9:45 A.M.¹ "This Living World" CBS. Nov. 7, "Health"; Nov. 14, "Housing for Defense"; Nov. 28, "Man Power"
10:30-11:00 P.M. "Listen America" NBC-Red
11:15-11:30 P.M. "The Story Behind the Headlines" NBC-Blue

Saturdays

- 12:00-12:15 P.M. "Consumer Time" NBC-Red
7:00-7:30 P.M. "Defense for America" NBC-Red
7:00-7:30 P.M. "People's Platform" CBS
10:00-10:30 P.M. "Hemisphere Review" NBC-Blue

Radio Notes

The United Parents Association's survey of the radio listening habits of youth, as reported by Mrs. Jacob Schechter in the September, 1941, issue of *High Points*, finds an increased tendency on the part of children to use the radio more frequently, and to read less. Sixty-eight per cent of the children questioned preferred dramatization of fact or fiction to other programs. Of special interest to the teachers of the social studies is the fact that "children like to listen to the news but find it too difficult to understand most of it." (The questionnaire was answered by children from the kindergarten through the sixth grade.)

A new hour-long forum, "Wake-up America," devoted to discussion of current economic issues by noted speakers, is broadcast over the NBC-Blue network each Sunday at 2:30 P.M. EST. Citizens of specified towns will be invited to telephone questions-to-be-answered to their local NBC station each week during the first half hour. The series is produced by

¹ Columbia School of the Air programs are broadcast at 2:30 P.M. in the Central Time Zone, 9:30 A.M. in the Mountain Time Zone, and 1:30 P.M. in the Pacific Time Zone.

NBC in cooperation with the American Economic Foundation.

A new Association for Education by Radio will issue a journal keeping its members informed concerning happenings in the field of educational broadcasts. The annual membership fee of \$3 may be sent to Robert Hudson, Rocky Mountain Radio Council, Denver.

A series of slides, regular $3\frac{1}{4} \times 4$ inch size, to accompany the Columbia School of the Air programs on the Americas can be obtained from the Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pennsylvania.

Motion Picture Notes

A list of feature-length films in 16-mm. size has been approved by the Board of Education for use in New York City schools as supplementary material in history, geography, science, biology, economics, and literature courses. These films are the regular theatrical-type film originally designed for the commercial theater.

Films for Democracy is a list of films distributed by Brandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York City. These films, formerly distributed by Garrison Films, deal with such topics as our political heritage, health, housing, national defense, and aviation. Copies of the list may be obtained free.

A six-page mimeographed list of films on Latin America is available free from the Research Division, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St. N.W., Washington.

New York University has established a non-profit rental library at 71 Washington Square South, New York, for the distribution of educational films to schools and other interested organizations. The Film Library is acting as exclusive distributor for the four films made under the auspices of the New York University Educational Film Institute—*Valley Town*, *Machine: Master or Slave*, *And So They Live*, and *The Children Must Learn*. The new Film Library is also distributing in the Middle Atlantic States the fifty-five films of the Human Relations Series, made under the direction of the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association. Other films from many sources, selected by the Library in collaboration with members of the faculty of New York University, have been put on the Library list for distribution, and others are

being added constantly. For the convenience of schools and organizations who are not familiar with the films on the Library list, they are grouped under specific teaching classifications, such as economics and the social studies, education, health and nutrition, and science.

The four Educational Film Institute films are concerned with various approaches to current economic problems. *Valley Town* and *Machine: Master or Slave* deal with the problem of technological unemployment, and *Valley Town* especially has been praised widely in general as well as in technical magazines for its photography and subject handling. *And So They Live* and *The Children Must Learn* present studies of two rural Southern communities giving particular emphasis to the lack of relationship between the school curricula and the economic needs of the area.

Recent 16-mm. Releases

Audio Film Libraries, 661 Bloomfield Ave., Bloomfield, New Jersey.

Pioneer Life Films, 1 reel each, sound, rental \$150. Titles: *Kentucky Rifle*, *Candle Making*, *The Spinning Wheel*, and *Placer Gold*.

Erpi Classroom Films, Inc., 35-11 Thirty-fifth Ave., Long Island City, New York.

Kentucky Pioneers, 1 reel, sound, sale \$50. Less 10 per cent educational discount.) For rental price consult your local film library.

Pictorial Films, Inc., RKO Building, Radio City, New York.

Man The Enigma, 3 reels, sound, rental \$4.50. Pictures democracy as the perfect form of government.

Bell and Howell Company, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, Radio City, New York.

"Color Travel Films," 1 reel each, sound, rental \$1.50. Titles: *Yellowstone*, *Northwest Mountains*, *Trips through Utah*, *Mount Rushmore National Monument*, *Colorful Colorado*, *Grand Canyon*, and *Puerto Rico*.

Armour and Company, Audio-Visual Promotion, Union Stock Yards, Chicago.

Meat for America, 2 reels, sound, free. Place your order through Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, New York, Chicago, Dallas, and San Francisco, or with Burton Holmes Films, Chicago.

Shell Oil Company, Public Relations Department, St. Paul, Minnesota.

Oil from the Earth, 2 reels, sound, free. Drilling for oil and piping it to the refinery. Good background for conservation.

Academic Film Company, Inc., RKO Building, Radio City, New York.

Our Louisiana Purchase, 2 reels, sound rental \$4. Shows historical reconstruction of events leading up to the purchase.

Defense Motion Pictures

The following motion pictures produced by the Film Unit of the Office for Emergency Management are available in 16-mm. sound editions for showing by schools, clubs, civic groups and other non-profit organizations:

Power for Defense. 1 reel, 10 minutes; an interesting film reporting on the defense activities using TVA power in the Tennessee Valley. Film shows manufacturing of army shoes, tents, textiles, shells, marine boilers, airplanes, aluminum, and other items.

Army in Overalls. 1 reel, 7 minutes; work of the CCC in clearing military reservations for the U. S. Army. Film shows land clearance for parachute troops, tank units, rifle ranges, and other activities.

These films are being distributed at no cost other than transportation charges by the Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York City; the Division of Information, Office for Emergency Management, Washington; the Y. M. C. A. Motion Picture Bureau, 19 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois; the Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, 351 Turk Street, San Francisco; and the Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, 1700 Patterson Avenue, Dallas, Texas.

Classroom Film Review

Title: *And So They Live*

Length: 2 reels.

Type: 16mm., sound.

Distributor: New York University Film Library, 71 Washington Square South, New York City.

Rental: \$4 per day.

This film, produced in cooperation with the University of Kentucky, shows the life of the poor white farmer, and points to the failure of the local school to improve his lot. The film opens with a view of the barren countryside. The children go about their morning chores and then prepare for school. The meager lunch of biscuit, pork, potatoes, and berries is packed. The interior of the house is poorly furnished. At school we see these same children, supposedly learning to live, studying Chaucer and glibly reciting about monks and ladies. The geography class studies Holland. As the teacher talks of windmills the scene shifts to a nearby, deserted sawmill. The surrounding land has been cut over and burned over. Back in the

schoolroom the teacher is telling the children how the Swiss use goat's milk and cheese. In the neighborhood goats are used only to keep preying dogs away from the sheep. The children now eat lunch and the inadequacies of their diets are seen in the contents of the various lunch bags. Back at home the mother is preparing the family dinner. The meal consists of corn bread and potatoes. The father is talking to a friend about the poor quality of the soil, but he feels he must keep working it in order to live. Back at school once again the commentator tells us of a plan to have these children study about soil and food. Next year a more practical curriculum will be put into operation. Returning to their homes the children find another meal of corn bread, potatoes, berries, and salt pork. After supper the father plays the banjo, little brother dances and is rewarded with a cigarette which he smokes complacently as the scene fades out.

Good for a picture of one phase of Kentucky life and the failure of the school to deal with the problem. It is a depressing picture without too much hope expressed. Problems of Democracy classes will find much stimulating discussion material in this film. It will open questions of soil conservation, governmental regulation and assistance, diet, sanitary conditions, rural housing, folklore, and the function of education in life situations.

Government Aids

Teachers interested in setting up a classroom or school museum will find valuable assistance in Ned J. Burns' *Field Manual for Museums* obtainable from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, for 70 cents.

The amount of material obtainable from governmental agencies is sometimes so overwhelming that it is ignored entirely by many classroom teachers. This is especially true of the many excellent maps which may be had at small cost. Did you know, for example, that you can get a map of your own state, 20 x 27 inches in size, for 10 cents? To check on this type of material, write to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, and request price list No. 53, *Maps*.

For maps of certain areas along the coast of the United States address the Director Coast and Geodetic Survey, Washington, stat-

ing the region in which you are interested. These maps are sold, but the index sheets illustrating and describing them are free.

Geological, topographic, and other maps are produced and sold by the Geological Survey. A circular giving general information concerning Geological Survey maps may be obtained free of charge on application to the Director, Geological Survey, Washington.

The Consumer's Service Section, Consumer's Counsel Division, Department of Agriculture, Washington, has available sets of posters which are loaned for a limited time. One set consists of enlargements from the special Food and National Defense issue of the periodical *Consumer's Guide*, issued last September. Another set on very thin cardboard depicts adequate diets at low cost. A third series of ten posters is concerned with weights and measures, and the fourth is a series of cartoons entitled "Adventures of Johnny Consumer" which appeared in the January 2 issue of *Consumer's Guide*.

Recordings and Transcriptions

Recorded Lectures, Inc., recently announced that their electrical transcriptions are to be exclusively distributed by Bell and Howell Co., New York and Chicago. The first series is entitled "This is America" and is composed of two 16-inch, double-faced records playing at 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ revolutions per minute. (The records can not be played on regular phonographs, but are designed for transcription turn-tables.) The titles of the records in this series are "America Moves West," "American Public Schools," "The Statue of Liberty," and "Thanksgiving." The cost of the four programs on two records is \$10.

Sources of Visual Aids

At long last the Division of Special Problems, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, has prepared a really exhaustive and usable list of sources from which all types of visual aids may be obtained. It includes sources of distribution of instructional materials such as maps, charts, and lantern slides; of mechanical equipment, such as cameras and projectors; and general informational sources, such as the American Council on Education, the *Educational Screen*, and certain federal and state government offices. Under each subheading as

indicated above, sources of distribution are listed, classified as follows: Federal Departments and Agencies, State Government Departments and Agencies, Colleges and Universities, Libraries, Museums, Associations, and Commercial Dealers. Over 1,200 agencies of distribution are listed. The title of this list is *Sources of Visual Aids for Instructional Use in Schools*, U. S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 80. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents. Price 15 cents.

Guides to Visual Materials

The Visual Aids Service, New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, N.J., under the direction of Dr. Lili Heimers has added to their very useful series of guides to audio-visual teaching aids a much needed guide to the illustrative materials available for *Problems of American Democracy*. This guide is divided into four sections: general section, political problems, economic problems, and social problems. Under each section are listed the available charts, maps, slides, films, posters, cartoons, publications, and similar aids which help to illustrate a particular aspect of the problem under consideration. The cost of this guide is 50 cents, cash with order.

Other guides in this series, of special interest to social studies teachers are: *Visual Aids*, \$1.00; *Visual Aids for Pupil Adventure in the Realm of Geography*, 50 cents; *Pan-Americana*, 50 cents; and *Safety Education*, 15 cents.

Slides

National Pictures Service, Inc., 228 E. Fifth St., Cincinnati, offers to teachers a slide-making service whereby the teacher furnishes negatives or prints which he wishes made into stereoptican slides. If you are interested in preparing projection slides from your vacation snapshots, write to the above address for prices and further details.

Free and Inexpensive Materials

A four-foot chart on the sugar beet and its place in modern industry can be obtained free from the United States Sugar Beet Association, Sugar Building, Denver, Colorado.

Send a three-cent stamp to George R. Moniger, Indian Arts and Crafts, 928 Cajar Street,

Redlands, California, for a catalog of available teaching material on the American Indian.

A 35-mm. silent filmstrip entitled *A Trip through the Stockyards* may be obtained on free loan from Audiovisual Promotion, Armour and Company, Union Stock Yards, Chicago. Complete with dramatic script to be read aloud to the class.

A colored map of South America may be obtained from the National Geographic Society, Washington. Size 26 x 37 inches; paper, 50 cents; linen, 75 cents:

Each month *The Instructor* magazine publishes a full-page poster emphasizing the objectives stated in the Preamble to the Constitution. These posters make excellent bulletin board material. The October issue of *The Instructor* carries a poster entitled "Establish Justice."

Pictures

If you teach ancient history or world history don't miss the October issue of the *National Geographic Magazine*. This issue contains, without question, one of the best collections of pictures on ancient Egypt available to the classroom teacher. The first article "Daily Life in Ancient Egypt" by William C. Hayes contains 34 illustrations and a map. The second article "Life, Culture, and History of the Egyptians" by H. M. Heget is illustrated by 32 paintings in color.

Equipment News

The Bell and Howell Company, 1801 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago, has announced its entry into the field of "still" projection with a new Filmo Slide Master for the screening of 2 x 2 inch Kodachromes or black-and-white transparencies. This slide projector features a "base-up" lamp which slides into the lamp-house from the top and burns with its base upward. The advantage of this lamp, according to Bell and Howell, being that the blackening deposit formed during operation of the lamp is not deposited on the sides of the lamp, where it would reduce light transmission. The

Filmo Slide Master is designed to take 500-, 750-, or 1000-watt lamps, providing whatever degree of illumination is required. It is equipped with a powerful motor-driven fan which prevents overheating of the slide. With 2 x 2 inch slides rapidly growing in popularity, the announcement of such a precision projector is welcome news. The principal drawback to many schools considering this projector will be its price—\$250.00.

The Society for Visual Education, 100 East Ohio Street, Chicago, is offering a series of combination offers on Tri-Purpose Projectors (project single- or double-frame filmstrips and 2 x 2 inch transparencies), filmstrips, extra projection lamp, and screen. These combinations range from \$55.30 worth of material for \$50.00 to \$110.70 worth of material for \$100. Write the above address for further details.

Helpful Articles

Lemos, John O., "How to Make Good Posters," *Grade Teacher*, LIX:52-53, 82, October, 1941. Methods and materials in poster making for intermediate and grammar grades.

Livemore, Ruth, "Living with Chinese Children," *Educational Screen*, XX:278-80, 307, September, 1941. A grade unit on China utilizing the Erpi classroom film, *Children of China*.

Marsh, Mary T., "An Indian Project," *Grade Teacher*, LIX:32-33, 77, October, 1941. Suitable handwork for third-grade pupils. Includes directions for making a tepee, peace pipe, rattle for Indian dance, and totem pole.

Muchow, Clifford W., "Problems of America on the Air," *School Activities*, XIII:21-22, September, 1941. How a class in Problems of Democracy broadcast a panel discussion over the local radio station at Laguna Beach, California.

Smith, Charles T., "There's No Excuse for Not Using Visual Aids," *School Executive*, LXI:24-26, September, 1941. A summary of the wealth of material which is available and the many uses to which it may be put.

Woerner, Lee and Karl, "Your Constitution," *Grade Teacher*, LIX:16-17, October, 1941. The second of a series of drawings on the background of the Constitution especially designed for younger pupils.

Readers are invited to send items of interest for this department to Dr. Hartley at the editorial office, 204 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York.

Book Reviews

GREECE AND THE GREEKS: A SURVEY OF GREEK CIVILIZATION. By Walter Miller. New York: Macmillan, 1941. Pp. xiv, 508. \$3.00.

Professor Miller's *Greece and the Greeks* fills a need long felt by both the college student and the layman for an interesting one-volume account, written on the adult level, about Greek life. In writing this book Professor Miller remembered that the past is always most fascinating when related to the present. Therefore he describes present as well as past living conditions among the Greeks, present as well as past physical characteristics of the Greeks, and present as well as past means of communication. He does not leave his fundamental viewpoint that "The civilization of our civilized world is Greek civilization, with a very thin veneer of Christianity, as we are often tempted to think" (p. 1).

This volume is packed full of the interesting details of living: on water rather than oil as a lubricant for door hinges (p. 52); on "wall diggers" rather than lock breakers (p. 54); on presents for a baby (p. 79); on boys earning their way through school (pp. 92f); on baths by turning on a faucet (p. 98); on perfumed earth rather than soap (p. 101); on complaints against the sausage that contained dog or donkey meat (p. 104); on fingers and bread rather than silverware or napkins at the dining table (p. 109); on the mouth as a pocket book (p. 207); on gold fillings in the teeth (p. 259); on the water glass to indicate the time which an orator might have for his speech (p. 297).

Practically every page contains a quotation from some Greek writer. This easy familiarity with the original documents gives the reader a feeling of confidence in the writer of this volume as well as an acquaintance with the Greek authors. Chapter 29, on prose, which is easily the best chapter in this volume, contains an extraordinary amount of such quotations, particularly well chosen.

It is to be hoped that Professor Miller will sometime write a companion volume dealing with the lives of Greek people on the Asiatic coast, in Magna Graecia, and on the islands,

describing how those Greeks who were away from the dominating influences of Athens and Sparta lived and reacted to foreign influences.

MARTHA A. EGELSTON

New York State College for Teachers
Albany

A BRIEF SURVEY OF MEDIEVAL EUROPE. By Carl Stephenson, Harper's Historical Series. New York: Harper, 1941. Pp. xviii, 426. \$2.25.

This little volume is a condensation of Professor Stephenson's successful text, *Medieval History*, published in Harper's Historical Series in 1935. It is designed to meet the needs of the type of introductory course which covers many centuries of history in very limited time. As in the larger text, the narrative is supplemented by many good maps, a few well-chosen plates, genealogical tables, a useful chronological chart, a selective and critical bibliography, and an index. A great deal of attention is given to the civilization and culture of the Middle Ages. The political material is organized as it was in the earlier book. Events are presented in strictly chronological order, so that in the same section the student passes from the affairs of England in the thirteenth century to those of France, the Empire, and other parts of Europe. The present reviewer does not question the historical logic of this organization. His own experience has, however, led him to believe that the average student finds such organization more confusing than the conventional one in which each state is treated by itself in a separate chapter or section.

It is obvious that many difficulties must arise in the preparation of a survey of this type. That Professor Stephenson has coped with most of them successfully nobody can deny. As might be expected, his text is characterized by accuracy and by mature and up-to-date scholarship. The narrative is simple and clear. As in the larger volume the sections devoted to civilization and culture are outstanding. The practice of noting primary sources available in English translation renders the bibliographies of exceptional value to those who seek more

intimate acquaintance with the Middle Ages.

On the other hand, one must allow that condensation has not made Professor Stephenson's text more interesting. Many of the striking illustrative passages which give color and life to *Medieval History* do not appear in the present volume. The reviewer feels, too, that the necessity of saying much in restricted space may occasionally mislead the student. Thus, on page 291, in speaking of the beginning of the Babylonian Captivity, the author is bound to give many of his readers the false impression that the city of Avignon was already papal property when Clement V settled down there. Such ambiguous passages are, however, rare, and perhaps it is impossible to avoid them entirely in a narrative so condensed as this.

In appearance the book is very attractive. The type is large and clear. Typographical errors are very few. The only serious one occurs on page 147, where a description of feudal warfare has been rendered almost unintelligible. The plates are interesting and contribute materially to the understanding of the artistic achievement of the period. As in the larger text, they have been placed together in the middle of the book, an arrangement which the reviewer finds rather inconvenient.

The choice of a text for a broad, general, introductory course is always a difficult problem. Instructors giving such courses will find Professor Stephenson's *Brief Survey of Mediaeval Europe* worthy of their most careful consideration.

JOHN R. WILLIAMS

Dartmouth College

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PAGEANT OF ENGLAND, 1840-1940. Arthur Bryant. New York: Harper, 1941. Pp. xii, 338. \$3.50.

Mr. Bryant has given us both a philosophy and a social history, and, throughout, a penetrating diagnosis of the complexities, generally so little understood, that have made the England of the past century. The sympathetic reader will say "Amen!" while the cynical will be more firmly convinced than ever that the self-assurance and conceit of the Englishman is quite incorrigible. All readers, however, and their numbers should be legion, must surely be enlightened by some of his profound analyses and entertained by the lighter sections.

The fundamental philosophy that "nations like individuals reap what they sow" forms the central theme. England, lapsing from her heritage of virtue engendered by a close association with the soil, became beguiled by the Mammon of commercialism. The utilitarian doctrines of self-interest and *laissez-faire* are primarily responsible for the sins, local, imperial, and international, committed in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The War of 1914 gave the first chance for self-examination and "redemption," but those who controlled the economic life of the nation had not suffered enough, in fact had prospered, so did not understand the cravings of the mass soul. Now, once again, England is being given the opportunity to get back to eternal verities. "An island fortress, England is fighting a war for her own soul," and, perhaps, through such travail "she may discover a common denominator for human reconstruction more glorious than anything in her long past." For England, Mr. Bryant says, "has always learned her lessons from her past mistakes." While her enemies condemn her for her crimes—and they are many, he agrees—that is not the true basis for judgment, for her "true history is the record of how they were redeemed."

Within this general framework there are included many fascinating fragments, as must happen in a pageant. This is no chronological history, though dates are not ignored. Nor is it a topical history, though many topics are more or less fully sketched. His opening chapter on a "Green Land Far Away" recalls the halcyon days of a smokeless and unbesmirched countryside when squire and peasant apparently lived contented, complete, and independent lives, each in his own accepted sphere. Perhaps some of that thesis might be open to question. The past is always a Golden or Silver Age.

The harrowing conditions of life in factory and mine, the filth, insanitation, and misery in the rapidly growing cities, receive the searchlight of criticism, however, as freely as the gentler aspects of rural living, so Mr. Bryant makes no attempt to hide the faults of his beloved country. He merely tries to analyze both faults and virtues.

A number of interesting character sketches are included, with especial admiration for the leaders of vision, as Disraeli, who, Mr. Bryant believes, possessed rare insight into the English

character and destiny. Disraeli, almost alone, saw the limited, temporary, and dangerous character for a "continuing society" of the policies being popularly pursued. Interesting and somewhat unorthodox comments are made on Sir Robert Peel, Gladstone, Joseph Chamberlain, and others.

Throughout the book are contemporary cartoons, quotations from *Punch* and such spicy memoirs as that of Greville. The style is brilliant and never dull even in the sections on economic theory. Layman and scholar alike can read this book with profit and enjoyment.

AVALINE FOLSOM

State Teachers College
Montclair, New Jersey

THE BATTLE FOR THE WORLD: THE STRATEGY AND DIPLOMACY OF THE SECOND WORLD WAR. By Max Werner. New York: Modern Age Books, 1941. Pp. 403. \$3.00.

At the outset of the present war Max Werner presented a remarkably accurate estimate of the forces engaged in his *Military Strength of the Powers* (New York: 1939). He now follows this work with a penetrating analysis of the course of the war to April, 1941. Few writers are as well-qualified to deal with military matters. His command of western European languages and his acquaintance with recent military literature is exceptional. He was fully aware of the hazards involved in writing a history of the war while it is still being waged, but holds that a faulty history of the war *at the time* is of far greater value than one written after the event when all hope of profiting by the lessons involved has passed away. The reviewer shares this opinion to an extent, but can only express regret that Mr. Werner could not have waited with his final chapters until after the invasion of Soviet Russia in June, 1941. This would have been particularly desirable, since Mr. Werner was one of the few military critics to place a high valuation on the military potential of the Soviet Union. After the present volume was published he expressed his views on Russia's chances in a war against Germany in the *New Republic* for August 18, 1941 (pp. 210-14).

The first three chapters of the book are devoted to the military and diplomatic preparations for war and to a statement of the military

doctrines of the various armies. One chapter each is allotted to the Polish, the French "sitkrieg," the Finnish, and the Norwegian campaigns. Six chapters deal with the decisive campaign in Flanders and France. Five chapters trace the effects of the German triumph in France on Britain, the Balkans, Russia, and the United States.

After contrasting the underlying military doctrines and practices of the First World War, Mr. Werner shows how completely unprepared the western European allies were to meet the kind of total war which had been generated by the social and military revolution in the Third Reich. The only non-Axis power to approach the Reich's military, diplomatic, and political preparations for war in completeness was Soviet Russia. Italian military ideas and preparations were inadequate to modern conditions and led directly to the humiliating reverses in Greece and north Africa. At each pre-war crisis the whole weight of Axis military, economic, and political strength was thrown simultaneously into the balance. Because of their military weaknesses, the democracies were unable to cope diplomatically with the Axis. The traditional compartmentalized methods of the democratic countries were as obsolete in the crisis of 1938-39 as their armies were for the shooting war of 1939.

Nowhere does the futility and frustration of the French and British war effort appear more clearly in Mr. Werner's pages than in his description of the proposals (during the period of inactivity in the West) for opening up a front against Germany by aiding Finland or attacking Germany by way of the Scandinavian peninsula. He also shows how wildly ill-founded were the proposals for attacking Russian oil resources in the Middle East by air. The failure of the campaigns in Norway, the Low Countries, and France in the spring of 1940 shows how completely out of touch with reality these proposals were. Churchill was one of the few men who consistently hoped to bring the great resources of Russia into the balance against Hitler.

From the crushing defeat of France Mr. Werner draws the lesson that victory is impossible under modern conditions without modern weapons. He discredits the idea of German military invincibility. They were able to win their stunning victory over France because they

threw an integrated force of 125 divisions, 7,500 tanks, and 5,000 to 7,000 planes into the struggle. Germany's enemies had the capacity to put forth an equal or greater force, but they were unable to use that capacity for want of adequate preparation. Mr. Werner believes that the United States is capable of outproducing the German armament industry in time. In summary he believes that "a victory for democracy calls for a tremendous increase in arms efficiency, the adoption of modern mobile warfare, and the combined use of all defense branches, while taking full advantage of naval superiority. In addition it calls for an active policy of alliance, an active diplomacy, and an active political warfare."

This book will be a valuable balance and corrective to student newspaper reading. It would be an addition to any school library.

H. A. DEWEERD

Institute for Advanced Study

AMERICAN BIOGRAPHIES. By Wheeler Preston. New York: Harper, 1940. Pp. viii, 1147. \$7.50.

The 5,257 short sketches of the lives of prominent Americans, from colonial days to the present, contained in *American Biographies* give the answers to many of the questions which arise frequently in a busy classroom. Every teacher of American history is familiar with the sort of detailed query which this reviewer has in mind: "What was Rachel Jackson's name before she married Andrew Jackson?" or "What happened to Peggy Eaton in her later life?" or "What's a good book on Aaron Burr?" True enough, the inquisitive student should be encouraged to consult the *Dictionary of American Biography*, but few classrooms are so well-equipped as to contain that mine of information, and time in these teaching situations is often of the essence.

From Cleveland Abbe, who begins this biographical dictionary, to John Joachim Zubly, who ends it, a vast store of data, both biographical and bibliographical, has been packed into the carefully condensed entries which cover people in a wide variety of fields. The choice of names to be included is generally a wise one, although a reader interested in Western history and social history might suggest to

Mr. Preston that he covers a good deal of territory in his prefatory remark that, with the exception of living Americans, "Every man or woman from colonial times onward who has played a noteworthy part in the making of the United States finds a place." Did John Marshall and Vice-President Thomas R. Marshall play "noteworthy parts in the making of the United States"—but not James Marshall, when he saw gold in Sutter's mill-race in 1848? Some of the entries included might well have been sacrificed to make way for such colorful characters as "Sockless Jerry" Simpson, Mary Elizabeth Lease, William Keith (certainly not a minor figure in California art history), or Wyatt Earp. These suggested inclusions, however, could do little more than add to an already comprehensive handbook. The teacher will find in it a volume worthy of a place on his desk alongside Ploetz' manual, *The World Almanac*, and *The Statistical Abstract*—and one which will soon come to be as well-thumbed.

DONALD L. CHERRY

Sequoia Union High School
Redwood City, California

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES. By Robert A. Maurer and George J. Jones. Boston: Heath, 1941. Pp. vi, 136. 80c.

It is quite refreshing to examine a textbook which is not dressed up like a novel. While many may think that the absence of "romantic" titles and profuse illustrations detract from the interest qualities of the book, it has been the writer's experience that most boys and girls who have been properly motivated to a study of the history of the government of their country prefer material that is clear, concise, and yet detailed enough to enable them to get a clear picture of what happened. This text seems to be just that. Chapter headings and titles of sections within the chapters are specific and meaningful. Headings are carried at the top of each page, so the absence of an index is perhaps not a serious defect, especially in so small a book.

The simple style, plentitude of detail, and careful documentation make this book a useful tool to the teacher who wishes to have his pupils *understand* the Constitution through an historical approach. It was planned by the

authors to supplement civics and American history texts in either the junior or senior high schools. The easy vocabulary and simple sentence structure make it readable for eighth graders, but in the opinion of this reviewer, it has a better place in the senior high schools, especially for slow readers. A wide use could also be made in adult education classes for those who need a brief but complete review of American government and its historical background.

Pupils who are led through a careful study of this text, even by an inexperienced teacher who has to rely upon the "queries" and other review and drill exercises should be able to think more clearly about the foundation of our national government the balance of their lives.

HOWARD T. COX

West Junior High School
Des Moines

1787. Compiled by Jane Butzner. New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1941. Pp. 197. \$2.25.

The best summary of this book is provided by the editor herself when she says that it was her purpose "to contrast the Constitution we have with the constitutions we might have had." She has listed, under each clause of the existing document, all the alternative proposals which were made by the delegates and rejected by the convention. For example, the provision that Senators should hold office for six years is followed by the arguments of the men who felt that this was either too long, or too short a term. The rejected suggestions are taken largely from Madison's *Debates*, and reproduce his wording as far as possible, but some changes were made to secure "clarity, uniformity of presentation, and avoidance of repetition." Through this device the long series of compromises which produced the final document is admirably illustrated.

In studying this material one is immediately impressed by two facts. The first has often been pointed out—the delegates were far more

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interested in the forms of representation than in any other question. Everyone agreed that the federal government should have more power, but there was endless argument over who should control that power. Small states feared the domination of Virginia, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania; the South feared the domination of the North; conservatives feared the domination of the poor. As a result, over a fourth of the book is devoted to arguments about the franchise, the nature and size of constituencies, terms of office, and so forth, while there are only eight pages on the Supreme Court, one on the commerce clause, and almost nothing on the general-welfare clause. The second fact is, in some degree, a corollary of the first—the delegates were in general agreement on many points before the debates began. "The constitutions we might have had" bear a strong family resemblance to the Constitution we have, and the editor has found it possible to relate all but a few scattered proposals to clauses in the final document. Delegates might argue over the methods of choosing the two houses, or of apportioning taxation, but they agreed that two houses and national taxation were necessary. It was this agreement on fundamental principles which made compromise possible.

The book would have been better, and not much longer, if the gradual development of each article of the Constitution had been shown. The relevant clause in the Virginia Plan might have been printed first, then the modification of that clause as a result of votes in the Committee of the Whole, and finally the changes introduced by the Committees on Detail and Style. This would have shown how compromises were gradually worked out, instead of lumping all suggestions together without any clear chronology. It also would have avoided the unfortunate device of printing sections of the Virginia Plan or the report of the Committee of the Whole as if they were speeches made by Randolph. A final criticism would be that the editor made no use of Lansing's notes on the Convention. It is true that they are not very important, but they do contain suggestions not found elsewhere, including a much clearer description of Pinckney's plan for the Senate than is given by Madison.

JOSEPH R. STRAYER

Princeton University

YOUR GOVERNMENT TODAY AND TOMORROW.

By L. J. O'Rourke. Boston: Heath, 1941.
Pp. xix, 709. \$1.84.

Your Government Today and Tomorrow embodies methods and techniques designed for senior high school level which were developed during the past seven years by the author, who has conducted research in the field of civics teaching through the Civics Research Institute. Social studies teachers generally agree that under a democratic form of government it is of vital importance that the citizenry should not only be intelligently concerned with the nature of the government and the problems which it must face, but also know how to translate intelligent opinions into action. Accordingly the author presents in this text a realistic treatment of the part that can be played by the individual and the means by which political changes are effected.

The book has been exceedingly well organized in three parts, which emphasize the individual's participation in and relation to government. Part I, the "Individual's Relation to Government," commences with a two-chapter consideration of the meaning of American citizenship, civil rights, and public opinion with special attention on individual expression and its formation. This is followed by a two-chapter consideration of the nature and activities of political parties, and the individual's responsibilities in elections.

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Government is treated in this book as dynamic rather than static, so that no student need allow his interest to lapse into indifference. Emphasis is placed on general principles

and general problems rather than on mere description. Approaches to problems are presented as approaches, not as solutions. Generally the problems are treated accurately, and with impartially proposed solutions. The author builds up an appreciation of the many functions of the government so that its various failings and weaknesses assume their proper proportions beside its achievements. Historical material has been omitted except where it contributes directly and immediately to the understanding and evaluation of government policies.

Suggestive reports and discussions, which have been patterned after material developed for experimental program of the Civics Research Institute, appear at strategic intervals throughout the book, and an excellent bibliography concludes each chapter.

DEOBOLD VAN DALEN

J. D. Pierce School
Grosse Pointe, Michigan

WE HOLD THESE TRUTHS: DOCUMENTS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY. Selected and edited by Stuart Gerry Brown. New York: Harper, 1941. Pp. vi, 351. \$1.25.

This compact volume contains a selection of significant documents expressing the ideals and principles upon which the democracy of the United States is based. The selections vary, having been drawn from a wide collection of speeches, public papers, court decisions, and declarations. Each section gives specific emphasis to some basic tenet in the national belief.

The editor introduces each selection with a brief paragraph indicating the principle which is illustrated. Documents which point out the importance of arriving at a decision by free discussion and the consent of the majority are frequently noted. Several, such as the selections from the Massachusetts Bill of Rights or the Virginia document, emphasize the enduring principle of freedom. Other sections, as evidenced by the quotations from the Albany Plan of Union or the Articles of Confedera-

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The collection is most timely, for it appears during the years when the American people are increasingly conscious of their heritage and deeply interested in the historic declarations of policy and belief. The book makes it possible to compare the past and present in South American relations by offering sections from the Monroe Doctrine, a letter by James G. Blaine on the subject, and passages from Theodore Roosevelt's message to Congress in 1904. By adding a study of contemporary policy a relatively coherent picture may be obtained of the principles which are influencing our policy.

The book has an adequate index, a table of contents which indicates the chronological arrangement of the selections, and a somewhat thought-provoking introductory essay by the editor. The volume is especially valuable for use in the secondary school where such materials are not readily available or are too expensive for the limited budget of the library.

One might wish for a somewhat wider selection from contemporary statements but the documents are well chosen and offer a wide range of possibilities.

MILDRED ELLIS

Senior High School
Framingham, Massachusetts

GROWING UP IN THE BLACK BELT: NEGRO YOUTH IN THE RURAL SOUTH. By Charles S. Johnson. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1941. Pp. xxiii, 360. \$2.25.

Charles S. Johnson grew up on the edge of the Black Belt. Today he holds a distinguished place, not only as a Negro scholar and leader, but as one of the foremost of American sociologists. After working in Chicago with the Na-

tional Urban League to improve the conditions of Negroes in the larger cities, he returned to the South where he is now head of the Social Science Department at Fisk University. He is associated with the group of Southern regional scholars under the leadership of Howard Odum at the University of North Carolina in Chapel Hill. His outlook and interests are human and regional rather than predominantly racial. Among his earlier works, *Shadow of the Plantation* (1934) is most closely related to this one. Two significant books of which he is co-author, *The Collapse of Cotton Tenancy* (1935) and *A Statistical Atlas of Southern Counties* (1941), are concerned with problems that are as much those of white Southerners as of black.

Growing Up in the Black Belt is the result of an investigation sponsored by the American Youth Commission, and carried out by a staff whose work Dr. Johnson supervised and whose findings he wove into a synthesis. The book is primarily a study of the attitudes of Negro youth in the rural South, and of the conditions in which those attitudes are rooted. There is no devil chasing here. Emphasis is placed upon the effect of the generally low economic conditions of the area, as well as upon the effect of minority racial status. The method used is essentially that of sampling (p. xx). Eight "typical" Southern counties were selected for study, and in those counties, case studies of 2,000 Negro youth were made by means of a variety of devices.

The results are presented in a matter-of-fact way, sometimes statistically, yet with concreteness and a charm of style. Often the Negro youth speaks for himself, not in minstrel-show dialect nor in Harvard English, but in his own speech. Page 98 tells the tragic story of a mulatto girl who tried to "pass" and was

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betrayed by a member of her own race. Chapter VI, "Youth at Play," has an engaging description of the water games of Negro boys in their old swimming hole.

The author has no panacea to offer. He presents the facts and is content, usually, to leave interpretation and generalization to the reader. But only the dull or the deliberately blind could escape the implications of those facts.

Other books in the same series (the American Youth Commission's special studies of Negro youth) deal with Negro youth in the urban South and in the middle (or border) states, and with Negro personality development in a Northern city (Chicago). A summary of the findings together with a program of recommendations for economic and social planning is to be published. All of the studies have value, but Johnson's is the best. In contrast to some of the other writers of the series, Charles S. Johnson does not look upon the status of the Negro as a caste status, nor does he attempt the semi-Freudian interpretations and speculations that some of the others do. His book is a noteworthy contribution to the literature of both race and Southern regional problems.

This reviewer, who also grew up in the Black Belt of the rural South, found the book profoundly disturbing. It quietly undermines the comfortable feeling of the white Southerner that: "Colored people like us better than they do Northerners because, although we keep them in their place, we understand them better."

CHRISTIANA MCFADYEN

Woman's College of the University of North Carolina

•
THEY LIVE ON THE LAND: LIFE IN AN OPEN-COUNTRY SOUTHERN COMMUNITY. By Paul W. Terry and Verner M. Sims. University: Bureau of Educational Research, University of Alabama, 1940. Pp. xi, 313.

"Upland Bend" on East River, Chehaw County, Alabama, is the community described in this useful volume. It is located in the hill country of north Alabama about twenty-five miles away from the Huntsville road leading south from the Tennessee Valley. For reasons that are not fully explained, an elaborate survey of this somewhat isolated community was



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undertaken. It was financed by the Civil Works Administration and assisted by two other New Deal agencies. Questionnaires, standardized tests, and formal interviews, observations by staff members, and a certain amount of historical research were employed in the collection of data. Place names and surnames have been changed so as to prevent identification. Although such scholarly paraphernalia as footnotes, bibliography, and index are missing, the authors and directors of the survey make a valuable contribution to our knowledge of a typical community in the foothills in the up-country South.

With agriculture as the predominant occupations, social status of the people is determined by land ownership and tenure. Barely forty per cent of the farmers are owners. Their children monopolize the high school, marry later, and have fewer offspring than the tenants. Most of the things that constitute the so-called American standard of living, from insurance policies to automobiles and hospital treatment are enjoyed almost exclusively by the owning class. Led by eleven large holders they deliver the vote, govern the churches, and dominate the PTA. The tenants, irrespective of race in this predominantly white community, are virtually disfranchised. They exist on marginal incomes and can give their children no more than an elementary education. But one generation away from farm ownership, they are developing into a permanent class whose substandard houses and shifting residence undermine the churches, the school, and civic ethics. Into this class small owners are sinking as they fail to lift the burden of debt. Land ownership continues to become concentrated.

Against this background the picture drawn of civic life, health, home life, religion, education, leisure, thought, and leadership is highly significant and interesting. Teachers and students who are interested in a candid portrayal of Southern rural society will profit from a perusal of this provocative study.

CHESTER MCA. DESTLER

Elmira College

THE AMERICAN AGRICULTURAL PRESS, 1819-1860. By Albert Lowther Demaree. New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1941. Pp. xix, 430. \$4.00.

With the appearance of John S. Skinner's *American Farmer* in 1819, the American farm periodical began a career of great influence. When agriculture was still the dominant occupation of the country, and while there was a dearth of reading matter available to farmers, it met an undoubted need. The growth of the farm press, too, was concomitant with the growth of agricultural societies, and the advocacy of scientific farming, and became the principal agency for the propagation of new ideas among farmers.

The farm editor, in fact, had a great responsibility. It was a day of personal journalism, and the personality of the editor was often as well known to his readers as was that of Greeley later through the *New York Tribune*. Jesse Buel, Edmund Ruffin, and Solon Robinson were pundits of no little consequence; and their influence led leaders in other fields, like Isaac Hill and Henry Ward Beecher, to try their hands at publishing farm papers. These leaders set a high standard, and sought to educate and elevate their readers. They informed them of the latest developments of scientific farming and stock breeding, and passed judgment on the new ideas. They fought against superstitions, such as belief in planting by phases of the moon, or that plant chess propagated from sound wheat, and they combated pseudo-scientific panaceas and quacks, though sometimes in their eagerness they got on the wrong side. They boosted the organization of agricultural societies and fairs, and offered prizes for experiments and information of merit. They invited the farmers to write for their columns, and to disprove the contention that they were mere theorists, or poor farmers, experimented on their own farms, or made long trips of inspection of agricultural progress.

Nor were farm papers neglectful of other interests of the farmer. They sought to give him "literature," poetry, and miscellaneous information on other subjects. While they usually eschewed politics, some became the vehicles of such reforms as women's rights, temperance, anti-slavery, or free common schools; and aroused their readers over the problems of population drift westward or to the cities, and to the deplorable state of farm architecture. The interests of women were not forgotten, and a "Ladies Department" pre-

sented articles, counsel, and leadership for the distaff side. The conductors of some of these departments, too, showed literary talent which received some recognition; and a few, "Aunt Patience" and "Aunt Fanny" for example, inaugurated columns of advice which remind us of "Dorothy Dix" or Emily Post in our day.

The farm press, in short, reflected the social life of rural America; and this volume by Dr. Demaree is an interesting and entertaining portrayal of those halcyon days. Appendices give a selection of articles from the press, and historical data on the more important periodicals.

MILTON W. HAMILTON

Albright College

GEOGRAPHY IN HUMAN DESTINY. By Roderick Peattie. New York: George W. Stewart, 1940. Pp. 323. \$3.00.

Roderick Peattie has written delightfully about geography. His book is not intended as

a text for the instruction of beginning students, yet it might prove more stimulating and more productive of aroused interest than many of the standard texts; his book is not intended as a learned treatise on the nature of geography, yet in its pages the professional geographer will find much to challenge his attention. Rather the book consists of a series of essays about geography, presented with a deftness of touch which is admirable; and from beginning to end the sentences send out a message which will strike a responsive chord in the heart of every sincerely devoted geographer—the love of the subject. Says Peattie, "Geography should be, and is, grand fun."

The author is not only a human geographer; he is also just plain human. And like most human beings whose profession calls for the expression of ideas in word symbols, he sometimes gets confused between the words and the ideas in back of them. Since the reviewer is also human, and also a human geographer, he must hasten to acknowledge the same difficulty—



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which leaves each very human reader to make what he can out of what follows.

Peattie proclaims himself "a confirmed environmentalist." But he is one of the very few people who call themselves environmentalists who could at the same time write the following statements concerning the relation of man to the physical world in which he lives: (1) "Environment cannot determine unless it be undergoing a process of change"; (2) "The more modern the scene, the less there is of the environment factor in culture"; (3) "Most facts of geography, or of geographic implication, are not environmentalistic"; (4) "Environment is real to us only in what we conceive it to be"; and (5) "Over-population is a term which has meaning only when thought of in terms of the culture of the moment, or, as we say, the state of the arts. This is true for all geographic facts." With statements such as these, the reviewer is in complete accord. Unfortunately for the sake of clarity, the word "environmentalism" carries with it an emotional, almost religious connotation—a faith—which the author, being both human and a scholar, attempts to preserve by giving the word a new definition. The reviewer must be some sort of horrid rebel, for the same ideas lead him to adopt the position of a "confirmed non-environmentalist."

Peattie defines geography as "the reciprocal relationship between physical environment and life." He then proceeds to make it quite clear with numerous examples that the significance to man of the elements of the physical environment is determined by the objectives, attitudes, and technical abilities of man himself—in other words, by the human culture, the way of living. There are a few slips. In spite of the fact that the author has gone far since he was first exposed to environmentalism, and now, as the reviewer would put it, has overcome the worst effects of this disease, nevertheless there are a few germs left. "Low monotonous landscape does not seem conducive to laughter"; "maturely dissected uplands are notorious for the feuds they engender"; "people of the plains have an urge to build towers to lift themselves above the earthly monotony"—(it used to be part of the creed that people on plains built low houses of sod to keep out the wind; and then Lewis Mumford showed that the tall buildings of

Columbus and Tulsa, among others, were built to increase the income per square foot of property—but that is not so poetic). One wonders, in fact, if the author, tongue in cheek, did not plant these little items in the midst of his manuscript in order to enjoy the roars of the enraged reviewers.

But don't be misled. Most of the argument is sound and well stated. The last few chapters develop a point of view which is of vital importance, and might well form the fundamental objective of courses in either geography or social studies. The geography of national competition does a first-class job of "interpreting the significance of location in human affairs" (which is the reviewer's pet definition of his subject). The Realism of Autarky, National Conservation is Socialism—these chapters help greatly to clarify the confused problems of the age, and lead with great force to the statement of the ideal of internationalism. Most geographers, however they may be confirmed, will recognize internationalism as the one sure road to peace, and will accept as a major responsibility the work of filling this rather abstract ideal with concrete meaning.

PRESTON E. JAMES

University of Michigan

•
A GUIDE TO A FUNCTIONAL PROGRAM IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL, prepared at Florida Curriculum Laboratory, University of Florida. Bulletin No. 10. Tallahassee: Florida Department of Education, October, 1940. Pp. 491. 50c.

A STUDY OF FACTORS INFLUENCING THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL CURRICULUM OF KENTUCKY. By Rolfe Lanier Hunt. Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1939. Pp. 231.

These two bulletins are of general interest in the curriculum field and of more than average concern to the social studies. They represent the products of two different methods of preparation, the first being prepared by nineteen secondary school teachers working as a curriculum-laboratory group, while the second represents the work of a graduate student in the development of a dissertation for a professional degree.

A Guide to a Functional Program in the Secondary School is a suggestive guide for de-

veloping a more nearly functional program than now exists in the secondary schools of Florida. It is based on two assumptions: (1) That teachers can, will, and do read, critically and intelligently, materials prepared for their use, and (2) that teachers are interested in understanding the whole program of the secondary school and the relations of their special interest fields to it. Whether these assumptions are misplaced or not remains to be seen. There is, however, no doubt but that the group which prepared the *Guide* was ready and able to act on these assumptions. Other groups of teachers may need to work through the basic materials of the book in an attempt to relate them to their own teaching situations, but the present production will give them a head start in doing so.

The book is divided into two parts: Part One describes the functions of the secondary school, the possibilities and limitations in developing the whole program, and some general discussion on methods. Part Two includes eight chapters on the special fields and a brief chapter on a glossary of current educational

terms. There is nothing strikingly new or original in the book, but the authors have done an excellent job of digesting and re-stating the more recent statements of purposes of secondary education. This is, after all, a necessary step in the implementation of basic pronouncements of aims and purposes for any group of teachers.

The outstanding feature of the book seems to lie in its applicability to the problems a school staff will encounter in making the transition to a functional school program. Excellent use has been made of illustrations, quotations, summaries, and charts to help the reader.

A Study of the Factors Influencing the Public School Curriculum of Kentucky was issued as a supplementary study to the investigations of the Kentucky Educational Commission. The writer states its purpose in the following question: "If it be true that the school should meet the needs of the pupil and of society, should not a study of the factors which have influenced curriculum changes in the past help us in the adjustment of the curriculum for today?" The study attempts to do this by a

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review of the historical foundations of the various subjects in the public school curriculum of Kentucky and examines the ideas and agencies which have contributed to the growth of the present program. The method of treatment is chiefly historical, particularly in the chapters which deal with acts of the General Assembly, the work of a state board of education, and of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

One interesting fact brought out in this study may be of unusual interest in the light of the current controversy regarding social studies textbooks of the schools. In 1845 Kentucky law gave parents or guardians the right to select, furnish, and direct what schoolbooks should be used by their own children or wards providing the same were not immoral. Subsequent laws lodged this responsibility in the State Board of Education, local boards of education, and, finally, the State Textbook Commission.

Interesting examples of the influence of various factors in the designation of subjects in the curriculum are cited, such as tradition, imitation, migration of teachers and patrons, recognition of the extracurricular activities, competition between and with private schools, philanthropy, and the influence of public opinion, particularly during times of war and in connection with religious controversy and the activities of pressure groups. The influence of the federal government and the accrediting groups of colleges, professional associations, and the activities of the textbook writers and publishers have had considerable influence in the shaping of the courses of study at various times. The writer sums up his findings in a brief chapter and concludes that if his study signifies anything, it is that the process of curriculum formation is never ending.

A brief chapter on interpretation and suggestions for further research purposes suggest studies for the consideration of students of education in general. The study will have value for the student of historical education and for the curriculum-minded teacher who is interested in avoiding some of the more obvious errors of the past.

E. F. HARTFORD

Tennessee Valley Authority
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CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS. By Douglas E. Lawson. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. xiii, 238. \$2.00.

This survey of curriculum changes in ten large cities during the past hundred years helps to meet an important need for an authentic analysis of trends in curriculum development. Various documents from the cities included (Baltimore, Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, Denver, Louisville, Oakland, Pittsburgh, St. Louis, and Seattle) were utilized to secure data regarding the changes occurring in subjects offered: the nature of the changes, their stated purposes, the professional and non-professional factors by which they were influenced, and the educational trends shown.

The chief usefulness of the study, as stated by Professor William C. Reavis in the "Foreword," lies in its "authentic material to combat inherited opinions and unsupported conclusions heretofore given too much consideration in curriculum improvement." Evidence showing such trends as the following may be found

especially helpful where historical developments may be effectively used to meet uninformed criticisms of modern curriculum practices: "the change from an emphasis upon mental discipline and upon knowledge for its own sake to an emphasis upon the peculiar and specific needs of the individual learner" (p. 99); "a consistent emphasis upon the fundamental tool subjects" (p. 225); and decreasing efforts to "develop character traits as such" (p. 98).

Significant implications regarding forces to be considered in curriculum programs may be drawn from such conclusions as the following: "the greatest influences appear to have been those which have operated from within [the school system], such forces usually being centered about the city superintendent and his administrative staff" (p. 155); "in numerous cases, after the schools have demonstrated the apparent success and wisdom of the changes, . . . public pressure has been reversed strongly to support the programs whose innovation it had formerly resisted" (p. 183); "the *status*

quo in education has been defended to a large extent through the influences of (a) college and university entrance requirements; (b) the textbooks; and (c) certain of the early national committees and commissions" (p. 231).

The significance of a study of this type has certain obvious restrictions. Tables of subjects offered at various times do not constitute an adequate record of curriculum development. Significant changes may be buried in frequency tabulations. The modern concept of curriculum is broader than that of a list of the subjects offered. The real purposes dominating curriculum changes are not necessarily those stated in official reports. Actual practices within a school system may differ widely from those indicated by courses of study. However, the author of the study formulated his generalizations carefully, and his amply documented analysis invites respect.

Later studies in the curriculum field can well examine more intensively, probably through case studies of individual school systems, the causative factors and the effects which

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